

THE
Monthly Museum;

OR,
DUBLIN LITERARY REPERTORY,

FOR NOVEMBER, 1813.

History, Antiquities, Biography.

THE LATE GENERAL MOREAU.

(WITH A PORTRAIT.)

"Undaunted Patriot, in that dreadful hour
"When the diem'd eye-ball, and the struggling breath,
"And pain, and terror, mark advancing death;—
"Still in that breast fair freedom held her throne,
"Thy toil, thy fear, thy pray'r were her's alone,
"Thy last faint effort her's, and her's thy parting groan."

HARRIS.

IN our last Number, we began, under a very considerable agitation of mind respecting the event of his recent wounds, to contemplate the character of GENERAL MOREAU, who fell, alas! at the moment that, surrounded with glory, he was exerting himself to unshackle Germany, and to secure the happiness of the human race. At that dreadful moment was "struck to the earth, from which he rose no more," one of the greatest Heroes, and most consummate statesmen, that France hath, in this age, produced. Impressed with the idea of a man of polished manners, of generous principles, and of humane ideas, rising in that kingdom, and at once bursting into that brilliant circle of celebrity, that zenith from which he has, ere he had performed half his course, instantaneously descended like a falling star. We gave a brief

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sketch of his Life, in the progress of which we anticipated, and at the conclusion, announced his fate; a fate that has been deplored by every nation at present armed in the sacred cause of Liberty.

So soon did this great man's talents begin to appear, that early in his progress, it was observed by a profound French writer, "that he devoured in four months, more military works, treatises and memoirs, that had been composed in four centuries, and went, in three months, through more military manœuvres and evolutions, than many officers in 30 years."

It is a remarkable circumstance in his Biography, that on the very day in which he gained the capture of Sluys, and obtained possession for the French Republic of the whole island of Cadzand, his father was guillotined.

I

The first resolution of Moreau at hearing the fatal intelligence, was to leave the service of these men, and to join the emigrants armed to punish their crimes. He accordingly tendered his resignation to his friends and General Pichegru. But Pichegru was of a different opinion, and related the following details himself whilst in England.—“What do you intend to do?” he asked Moreau, “To quit the army and France,” was the reply. “To quit the army and France!” repeated Pichegru, “Do you not then see the manner in which the *Emigres* are treated by the foreign powers? I do not accept your resignation. I beg of you, as a friend, to reflect on the step you intend to take. Come to me again to-morrow. It is not thus that you should intend to avenge the death of your father! You must think of acquiring a glory and an importance which may one day put you in a situation to avenge it. I shall soon furnish you with an opportunity of distinguishing yourself.” Moreau came the day after to Pichegru, and told him, that he was convinced by his reasoning, which appears to have influenced the whole of his conduct afterwards. We shall not follow this commander in his brilliant military career; that belongs to history; but we cannot avoid observing, that thrice he had the honour of saving the French armies from impending destruction, and in two of those occasions he acted as a simple volunteer, or in subordinate situations in the army, having been superseded by the accomplices of his father's murderer, who dreaded the just vengeance of a man whom his exploits and moral conduct had made so popular with the troops and the people. It was on this occasion that a French colonel, now prisoner of war in

this country, and then attached to Moreau's army, asked him, when the order of the Directory which superseded him had been received. “General! will you obey so insulting a mandate!” “Yes,” answered Moreau, “as a General, an officer, or a soldier, Moreau is always ready to serve France.” Such, as we have observed before, was Moreau's leading principle.—He has, however, often been heard to declare “that he never would lead foreign troops into France; that he was the personal enemy of no man; but the determined enemy of all men, either princes or *sans culottes*, who should attempt to tyrannise over their countrymen, and he never would draw his sword, but when he should be convinced that it would be of other use to his fellow citizens, than solely to leave them to the choice of tyrants.”

As every thing which appertains to this great man is of vital importance to mankind, we insert his Proclamation from Groschwitz, after he had joined the allies; it breathes the whole soul of the patriotic hero.

GENERAL ORDERS.

“Groschwitz head-quarters,
Aug. 17, 1813.

“The sanguinary struggle for our independence is resumed; all the efforts of our illustrious Ally, his majesty the emperor of Austria, and our own, to obtain a durable peace without any further bloodshed, have proved fruitless. The design was, that we should have groaned under the ignominious yoke for a long time to come. To arms, therefore, ye valiant Russians, Prussians, and Germans! Our power is formidable, as it possesses both energy and a large numerical force. His imperial highness the Archduke Charles is Commander-in-Chief of the imperial Austrian army, who have made

common cause with ours. Courage, in battle, united with perseverance, must infallibly prevail.

"In the name of his Majesty the King of Prussia, as General in Chief of the Allied Army.

"The Russian Major-General, and Chief of the Etat Major,

"MOREAU."

He was in conversation with the Emperor Alexander when he received the fatal shot. It passed through his horse, shattering both legs, which were afterwards amputated; and hopes were entertained that he might survive. He bore the operation with heroic fortitude, and amidst the pain and agony which naturally followed, wrote and dictated the following letter to Madame Moreau:—

"MY DEAR LOVE,

"At the battle of Dresden, three days ago, I had both my legs carried off by a cannon-ball.

"That scoundrel Buonaparte is always fortunate.

"The amputation was performed as well as possible.

"Though the army has made a retrograde movement, it is not at all the consequence of defeat, but from a mismanagement, and in order to get nearer General Blucher.

"Excuse my scribbling. I love and embrace you with all my heart. I desire Rapatel to conclude.

"V. M.

"MADAME,

"The General permits me to write to you on the same sheet on which he has sent you a few lines. Judge of my grief and regret by what he has just told you.

"From the moment he was wounded, I have not left him; nor will I leave him till he is perfectly cured. We have the greatest hopes; and I, who know him, am certain we shall save him. He supported the amputation with heroic courage, without fainting. The first dressing has been taken off, and the wounds have a good appearance. He had only a slight access of fever when the suppuration took place, and it has considerably diminished.

"Forgive these details; they are as painful to me to give, as they will be to you to receive—I have stood in need of all my fortitude for the last four days, and

shall still stand in need of it. Rely upon my care, my friendship, and upon all the sentiments with which both of you have inspired me—Don't alarm yourself—I need not tell you to exert your courage. I know your heart,

"I will neglect no opportunity to write to you.—The surgeon has just assured me, that if he continue to go on as well, he will be able, in five weeks, to go out in a carriage.

"Madame and respectable friend, farewell—I am miserable. Kiss poor Isabelle for me.

"Your most devoted servant,

"RAPATEL.

"Laun, Aug. 30, 1813.

Soon after his decease, the Emperor Alexander, in a letter, the style of which would have done honor to the great Frederick, addressed the widow:—

"MADAME,

"When the dreadful misfortune which befel General MOREAU, close to my side, deprived me of the talents and experience of that great man, I indulged the hope that, by care, we might still be able to preserve him to his family and to my friendship. Providence has ordered it otherwise. He died, as he lived, in the full vigour of a strong and steady mind. There is but one remedy for the great miseries of life, that of seeing them participated. In Russia, madam, you will find these sentiments every where; and if it suit you to fix your residence there, I will do all in my power to embellish the existence of a personage of whom I make it my sacred duty to be the consolers and the support. I entreat you, madam, to rely upon it irrevocably, never to let me be in ignorance of any circumstance in which I can be of any use to you, and to write directly to me always. To anticipate your wishes will be a pleasure to me. The friendship I vowed to your husband exists beyond the grave; and I have no other means of shewing it, at least in part, towards him, than by doing every thing in my power to ensure the welfare of his family. In these sad and cruel circumstances, accept, madam, these marks of friendship, and the assurance of all my sentiments.

"ALEXANDER."

"Toplitz, 6th Sept. 1813.

As soon as the account reached this country of his death, the Prince Regent expressed a wish to pay a visit of condolence to his afflicted

widow; but she was in strong convulsions. These continued for some days, and were succeeded by a calm more afflicting perhaps, than those bursts of tears and sorrow which give relief to the overcharged heart.

In this situation, we understand, she still continues; for although

apprized of the magnificent intentions of the Emperor of Russia in her favour, it is not in the power of rank or riches suddenly to soothe affliction so deeply impressed, or to restore to animation spirits so deeply wounded.

J. B.

SHORT MEMOIRS OF THE LATE HENRY JAMES PYE, Esq. POET LAUREAT.

THIS Gentleman was descended from an antient family, whose antiquity and respectability were equal. The chief of his house came into England with William the Conqueror, and fixed their residence at a place called Meerd in Herefordshire. His great-great-grandfather was auditor of the Exchequer to James I. and paid the salary of the Poet-laureat. His son, Sir Robert Pye, married the eldest daughter of the patriot Hampden, from which union the late Poet-laureat was descended. Sir Robert Pye purchased Farringdon, in Berkshire, where our author's father occasionally resided.

H. J. Pye was born in London, in 1745; he was educated at home under the care of a private tutor until he attained his seventeenth year, when he entered gentleman commoner of Magdalen College, Oxford, under Dr. Richard Scroop. Having remained here four years he became Master of Arts; and in 1772, the degree of Doctor of Laws was conferred on him. Within ten days after the expiration of his minority, his father died; and in the same year he married the sister of Lieut.-Col. Hooke, by whom he had two daughters. After his marriage he lived mostly in the country; he was for some time in the Berkshire militia; and in 1784, he was returned to Parliament, Re-

presentative for Berkshire. The expences attendant on this election were too heavy to be borne by his circumstances, and therefore he was obliged to sell his hereditary estate. In 1790, he succeeded Mr. Warton in the laureatship; and in 1792, he was appointed one of the magistrates for Westminster, under the Police act.

Mr. Pye was possessed of much learning, resulting from his partiality for literary researches; when he was about ten years old, he dwelt with rapture on Pope's translation of Homer, to which book we are indebted for his love of poetry.

As to his poetry, his polished versification, his taste and fancy, tend more to exalt his character than excellence; and the great interest of virtue and public spirit, have uniformly been countenanced by his pen.

LISTS OF POETS LAUREAT.

1. John Kay, temp. Edw. IV. (Selden. Tit. Hon. P. 11. Ch. 1. S. 43.)
2. Andrew Bernard, temp. Hen. VII. (see Rymer, tom. XII. 317; and Sir Bryan Tuke's Accounts in Remembrancer's Office. He was blind.)
3. John Skelton, temp. Henry VIII. died June 21, 1529.
4. Edmund Spenser (circa 1590;) died 1598-9.
5. Samuel Daniel; died 1619, aged 57.
6. Ben. Johnson, held the office 18 years. Died 1637, aged 63.

7. Sir William Davenant; died 1668, aged 63.

8. John Dryden. He was displaced on his turning Roman Catholic, 1686; and was succeeded by

9. Thomas Shadwell, who, being an old enemy to Dryden, was satirized by him in the poem styled "*Mac Flecknoe*." Died in 1692, aged 52. (Flecknoe was a very indifferent poet, who lived a little while before. See Dr. Johnson's life of Dryden, p. 69.)

10. Nahum Tate. Having sheltered himself from his creditors in the mint, where he died 1716, he was succeeded by

11. Nicholas Rowe. Dr. Johnson, in his life of Rowe, seems to insinuate that Tate was ejected from the post to make room for Rowe. Rowe died 1718, aged 45.

12. Rev. Laurence Eusden; who enjoyed it till his death in 1730.

(Savage, being disappointed of the laurel on the death of Eusden, assumed the title of *Volunteer Laureat*. Dr. Johnson's lives of the poets, p. 263.)

13. Colley Cibber, died 1757, aged 87. After the death of Cibber, the post was offered to Mr. Gray; but he declined it.

14. William Whitehead was appointed. Dr. Johnson's life of Gray. Whitehead died in 1785; and it is said Mr. Mason had the offer of it before it was tendered to Mr. Warton.

15. Rev. Thomas Warton; died 1790.

16. H. J. Pye, esq.; died 1813.

17. Robert Southey, esq. has succeeded.

The history of the office of poet-laureat is involved in much obscurity: and the only points which appear to be certainly established are, that the office, as it now stands, involving an obligation to produce two odes yearly, cannot be traced much higher than a century: but for many centuries before that, there was a person attached to the court, and paid by the sovereign, whose title was that of laureat, and this title was evidently derived from the universities. When a scholar took his degree in grammar, which included rhetoric and versification, a wreath of laurel was presented to him, and he was afterwards styled *Poeta Laureatus*, or *Poet Laureat*; and the King's *Poet Laureat* was at first only a graduated rhetor-

ician employed in the service of the king. We have many accounts of persons who held this office; but it was unquestionably a different office, as to its duties, from the present, which, as we have already observed, cannot be traced much higher than a century. The king's birth-day in 1694 appears to have been celebrated officially by Tate, the poet. Rowe seems to have succeeded him; and from the year 1718 we have a regular series birth-day and new-year odes.—Of the office itself, if we may judge from the manner in which it has been filled, it is impossible to speak with much respect. For a whole century, we can name only two men who did honour to its duties. Warton and Rowe, who immediately preceded Mr. Pye, produced compositions of such elegance, as, had he lived longer, would have given a dignity to the office. If we may borrow a figure, Cibber, who held this office from 1730 to 1754, left it in complete ruins, and overwhelmed with a weight of ridicule which it seemed impossible to remove. Of this the patrons of the office seemed fully sensible: and when it was proposed to offer it to Gray, it was with the condition of being a *sinecure*; but Gray thought proper to decline it. His sentiments on the subject appear in a letter he wrote to Mr. Mason at that time. "If you hear who it is to be given to, pray let me know: for I interest myself a little in the history of it, and rather wish somebody may accept it that will retrieve the credit of the thing, if it be retrievable, or ever had any credit!"—At this time Mason himself was intended for it; but an apology was made for passing him over, "that, being in orders, he was thought, merely on that account, less eligible for the office than a layman."—This, however, was an apology created

for the purpose; for Cibber's immediate predecessor, Eusden, was a clergyman, and had held the office 14 years. It was then given to William Whitehead, but not with the compliment paid to Gray; for Whitehead, as he tells us himself,

— "Obliged by sack and pension,
Without a subject, or invention,
Must certain words in order set,
As innocent as a Gazette:
Must some half-meaning half disguise,
And utter neither truth nor lies."

His friend Mason, compassionating the case of a man tied down to such a task, endeavoured to relieve him by an expedient not very promising. He advised him to employ a deputy to write his annual odes, and reserve his own pen for certain great occasions, as a peace, or a royal marriage; and he pointed out to him two or three needy poets, who, for a reward of five or ten guineas, would be humble

enough to write under the eye of the musical composer! Whitehead, however, wrote *his own* odes, and had the honour to be reckoned superior to Cibber; but he could not check the licentiousness of the wits, who thought, and thought with justice, that any comparison with Cibber was a degradation. Cibber, in fact had rendered the office so completely ridiculous by his execrable odes, that the critics were never without a grin in their faces until Warton came—and since his death it is no great breach of charity to say, that their risible muscles have again *occasionally* been brought into play.—Gibbon and Warton, and many others have been of opinion, that the office might be retained as a *sinecure* ornament to the court, with great propriety—but, if its duties are still expected, its *honours* will, doubtless, be perpetuated.

ENGLISH CATHOLICS.

[Extracted from the *Dublin Evening Post*.]

The total number of Catholics in England and Wales is computed to exceed 300,000. The principal Catholic Counties are Lancashire, Yorkshire, Staffordshire, Warwickshire, and Northumberland. These, with Durham, Cheshire, Norfolk, Suffolk, Kent, and Worcestershire, (the next in number) contain about 200,000. London, and its suburbs, with Surry and Middlesex, are rated at 50,000. The remaining 50,000 are thinly scattered throughout other counties and cities—but chiefly in Bristol, Bath, Portsmouth, Plymouth, Southampton, Exeter, Gloucester, and a few watering places.

Some compute the total number at 400,000, and this we cannot positively contradict; but we rely

with more confidence upon the proportionate population of the respective districts, as above given and upon our computation of the aggregate amount.

Their classes are three—Clergy, Nobility, and Commoners—and each forms a venerable though decayed monument of ancient worth and respectability.

I. Clergy—They have ceased, during upwards of two centuries, to possess any regular hierarchy. There are no Bishops or Priests, as in Ireland, officiating in appropriate Dioceses or Parishes. They are governed, in spirituals by four Superiors, called Vicars Apostolic; these Vicars are deputed by the Pope, and exercise Vicarial power, revocable at pleasure. They are,

indeed, Bishops in the Catholic Church, but do not enjoy Episcopal authority in Britain; their Sees are little more than nominal, or "*in partibus*," as it is termed—as was *Centurion*, *Castabella*, &c. Each Vicar has a district, therefore, assigned to him, not a See.

Thus, Doctor Gibson in the Northern; Doctor Milner in the Midland; Dr. Pointier in the London; and Doctor Collingridge in the Western district.

In like manner each Priest has a separate district; not, however, any particular parish, but a "Mission," and he is termed a "Missionary!" He acts by virtue of a faculty, granted by the Apostolic Vicar of the district, and is removable at his pleasure.

In Ireland, on the contrary, where the regular succession has been preserved, no Bishop is removable at the mere will of the Pope—nor is any Parish Priest removable at the mere will of his Bishop. To effect such removal, there must exist a Canonical cause, an accuser, a regular trial, sentence and ratification.

In every county of England there are Catholic Chapels and Congregations. Altogether there are about 900 Chapels, mostly erected within the last twenty-five years; and, generally, clean, commodious, and well built. Lancashire alone counts upwards of one hundred Catholic Chapels. Moreover, most of the Catholic country gentlemen of fortune maintain Chapels in their houses. Service is performed daily in the private Chapel, and the traveller is freely admitted to assist at the Office.

In the Summer 1813, Doctor Smith, (the Vicar Assistant to the Venerable Dr. Gibson, in the Northern district,) confirmed the

following number of Catholic children, in three towns alone?

In Manchester	800
—Liverpool	1000
—Preston	1200

Hence some estimate may be formed of the Catholic Population of England.

II. Peers.—The Catholic Peers are seven in number, viz.

1. Earl of Shrewsbury, Premier	<i>Created</i>
Earl of England and Earl of	
Waterford and Wexford in	
Ireland	1442
2. Viscount Fauconberg	1643
3. Baron Stourton	1446
4. Baron Petre	1603
5. Baron Arundel	1605
6. Baron Dormer	1615
7. Baron Clifford	1672

The Presumptive Heir to the Dukedom of Norfolk is also a Catholic. In Scotland there are two Catholic Earls—Traquair and Newburgh.

The Catholic Baronets of England are fifteen in number, namely—

Sir William Gerard, Lancashire	1611
Sir Edward Hales, Kent	1611
Sir Henry Kinglefield, Berks	1612
Sir George Jerningham, Norfolk	1621
Sir Henry Tichborne, Hants	1625
Sir John Throgmorton, Berks	1641
Sir Edward Smyth, Shropshire	1662
Sir Windsor Hunloke, Derbyshire	1643
Sir Gernaby Haggerstone, Lincolnshire	1643
Sir Thomas Webb, Wiltshire	1644
Sir Edward Smyth, Warwickshire	1630
Sir Richard Bedingfield, Norfolk	1661
Sir Thomas Massey Stanley, Cheshire	1661
Sir Henry Maitre Lawson, Yorkshire	1665
Sir Piers Mostyn, Flintshire	1670

The principal names which have dropped off latterly, either by deaths or conformity, have been those of Howard, Duke of Norfolk, Brown, Lord Montague; Roper, Lord Teynham; Vavasour, Curzon, Acton, Mannoek, Gascoigne, Fleetwood, Swinburne—all Peers or Baronets.

Amongst the English Catholics are many ancient families, of name and renown in English History. Their present heads are mostly Country Gentlemen, retired, reserved; of sedentary, and nearly secluded habits of life. Such are the names of Constable, Clifford, Weld, Howard, Plowden, Townley, Jones, Stapleton, Carey, Stonor, Eyre, Heneage, Stanley, Turberville, Selby, Browne, Tunstall, Eyston, Errington, Chichester, Chomley, Giffard, Tasborough, Biddulph, Eccleston, Huddleston, Berrington, Charlton, Dalton, Sheldon, Ferrers, Canning, Berkely, Manby, Riddall, Darell, Fermor, Trafford, Weston, &c. &c. &c.

There are about five hundred of these Catholic families, not inferior to many in the British Peerage in ancient, pure, and noble lineage—some, who can boast the legitimate Plantagenet Blood—several, who enjoy landed estates, lineally transmitted since the Norman days, and even the Saxon era. These, though not now titled, may be classed by the Herald amongst Nobility. The heads of these families mostly live retired upon patrimonial incomes—varying in value from £15,000 to £25,000.

It may appear curious, to those who know the name of Giffard in Ireland, that the parent stock in England is wholly Catholic. The Giffards of Chillington, in Staffordshire, possess landed estates of £8000 a year, and upwards; and of this family is Sir John Throgmorton's lady, the elegant and accomplished correspondent of the pathetic Poet—Cowper.

III. Commoners.—We have spoken of the Clergy, Nobility, and higher classes of the English Catholic Body. The inferior orders are little distinguishable from the corresponding classes of their Protestant neighbours (or *Churchmen*, as they are termed.)

Here the broad features of distinction almost disappear—industry, association, necessity, obliterate the characteristic traits. Generally speaking, they are little Farmers, Shopkeepers, Artisans, and Labourers—decent, humble, timid, shy, and careful. It is supposed, that they are rather more moral, regular, submissive, and inoffensive, than their neighbours; and also, of a more sedate and stationary habit of life. Emigrations from their Parishes, Pauperism, and crimes, are said to be rare amongst them.

Wales affords but few Catholics—a singular fact, of a race, in lesser points obstinately wedded to ancient usage.

Wales, separated from England only by hedges and streams, remains profoundly ignorant of the English Language, and clings to her own, with all the jealousy of national pride.

Yet, Wales ceded her ancient religion, (without scruple or hesitation) to a people, whose language she still disdains to understand. She drinks, with delirious rapture, of every stream that flows from English eccentricity; and neither the mummery of the Jumpers, nor the frenzy of the Ezekielites, renders the spiritual potion too muddy for the ardent and enthusiastic Welchman.

The Roman Catholic Peers of Ireland, are eight in number, viz. three Earls, three Viscounts, and two Barons. Their surnames and titles are as follow:

1. Arthur James Plunkett, Earl of Fingall.
2. Charles Talbot, Earl of Waterford and Wexford (Earl of Shrewsbury in England.)
3. Valentine Browne, Earl of Kenmare.
4. Jenico Fraston, Viscount Gormanstown.
5. John Netterville, Viscount Netterville.
6. Thomas Anthony Southwell, Viscount Southwell.
7. Nicholas Barnwell, Lord Trimblestown.
8. Thomas Ffrench, Lord Ffrench.

THE CHARTER OF LIBERTIES, OR MAGNA CHARTA,

GIVEN IN THE YEAR 1255.

[Concluded from out last.]

XLIII. If any holds of us by fee farm, or socage or burgage, and holds lands of another by military service, we will not have the wardship of the heir or land which belongs to another man's fee, by reason of what he holds of us by fee farm, socage or burgage: nor will we have the wardship of the fee farm, socage or burgage, unless the fee farm is bound to perform military service.

XLIV. We will not have the wardship of an heir nor of any land, which he holds of another by military service, by reason of any petty serjeanty he holds of us, as by giving us daggers, arrows and the like.

XLV. No bailiff for the future shall put any man to his oath, upon his single accusation, without credible witnesses produced to prove it.

XLVI. No free-man shall be taken, or imprisoned or diseased of his freehold or liberties or free customs, or outlawed, or banished, or any ways destroyed; nor will we pass upon him or commit him to prison, unless by the legal judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land.

XLVII. We will sell to no man, we will deny no man, nor defer right or justice.

XLVIII. All merchants shall have safe and secure freedom (unless they be publicly prohibited) to go out of, and to come into England, and to stay there, and to pass as well by land as by water, to buy and sell by the ancient and al-

lowed* customs, without any evil tolls, except in time of war, or when they are of any nation in war with us.

XLIX. And if there be found any such in our land in the beginning of a war, they shall be attached, without damage to their bodies or goods, until it may be known unto us or our chief justiciary, how our merchants be treated by the nation in war with us, and if our be safe there, they shall be safe in our dominions.

L. It shall be lawful for the time to come, for any one to go out of our kingdom, and return safely and securely by land or water, saving his allegiance to us; unless in time of war, by some short space for the common benefit of the kingdom, except prisoners and out-laws, (according to the law of the land) and people in war with us, and merchants who shall be in such condition as is above mentioned:

* If any abuse be offered merchant strangers, or any other merchant in a corporation, and the head officer there do not provide a remedy, the franchise shall be seized; and the disturber shall answer double damages, and suffer one years imprisonment, &c. by stat. 9. Ed. III. Merchant strangers may come into this realm, and depart at their pleasure; and they are to be friendly entertained. 5. R. II. Merchant strangers shall be used in this kingdom as denizens are in others by 5. R. IV. If a difference arise between the king and any foreign state, alien merchants are to have forty days notice, or longer time to sell their estates and leave the kingdom, 27 Ed. III. All merchants may buy merchandise of the staple, 27 Ed. III. *Joan.*

LII. If any man holds of any Escheat, as of the honour of Walingford, Nottingham, Boulogne, Lancaster, or of other escheats which are in our hands, and are baronies, and dies, his heir shall not give any other relief, or perform any other service to us than he would to the baron, if the barony were in possession of the baron; we will hold it after the same manner the baron held it.

LIII. Those men who dwell without the forest, from henceforth shall not come before our justices of the forest upon common summons, but such as are impleaded, or are pledges for any that were attached for something concerning the forest.

LIV. We will not make any justices, constables, sheriffs or bailiffs, but what are knowing in the law of the realm, and are disposed duly to observe it.

LV. All barons who are founders of abbeys, and have charters of the kings of England for the advowson, or are entitled to it by ancient tenure, may have the custody of them, when void, as they ought to have.

LV. All woods that have been taken into the forest, in our own time, shall forthwith be laid out again, and the like shall be done with the rivers that have been taken and fenced in by us during our reign, (except they were our demesne woods.)

LVI. All evil customs concern-

ing forests, warrens and foresters, warreners, sheriffs and their officers, rivers and their keepers, shall forthwith be enquired into in each county by twelve knights of the same shire, chosen by the most creditable persons in the same county upon oath; and within forty days after the said inquest, be utterly abolished so as never to be restored.

LVII. We will immediately give up all hostages and engagements, delivered unto us by our English subjects as securities for their keeping the peace, and yielding us faithful service.

LVIII. We will entirely remove from our halliwicks the relations of Gerard de Athyes, so as that for the future they shall have no halliwick in England. We will also remove Engeland de Chygoon, Andrew, Peter and Gyon de Canceles, Gyon de Cygoon, Geoffry de Martyn and his brothers, and his nephew Geoffry and their whole retinue.

LIX. And as soon as peace is restored, we will send out of the kingdom all foreign soldiers, crossbowmen and stipendiaries, who are come with horses and arms to the injury of our people.

LX. If any one hath been dispossessed*, or deprived by us without the legal judgment of his peers, of his lands, castles, liberties or right, we will forthwith restore them to him; and if any dispute arises upon this head, let the matter be decided by five and twenty barons hereafter mentioned for the preservation of the peace.

LXI. As for all those things, of which any person has without the legal judgment of his peers been dispossessed or deprived, either by king Henry our father, or our brother king Richard, and which we

* Escheats are lands or tenements which fall to the king or lord of a manor either by forfeiture or by the death of a tenant who leaves no heirs general or special.

† Matthew Paris has several paragraphs relating to frankpledge and religious houses, &c. which being void, for brevity are omitted.

‡ Right to present to a church.

§ It is incredible to what a height these were got.

* The many great grievances which prevailed in those times are apparent from the whole tenor of the charter.

have in our hands, or are possessed by others, and we are bound to warrant and make good, we shall have a respite, till the term usually allowed the croises; excepting those things about which there is a suit depending, or whereof an inquest hath been made by our order, before we undertook the crusade.— But when we return from our pilgrimage, or if we do not perform it, we will immediately cause full justice to be administered therein.

LXII. The same respite we shall have for disafforesting the forests, which Henry our father, or our brother Richard have afforested; and for the wardship of the lands which are in another's fee, in the same manner as we have hitherto enjoyed these wardships, by reason of a fee held of us by knights service; and for the abbies founded in any other fee than our own, in which the lord of the fee claims a right: and when we return from our pilgrimage, or if we should not perform it, we will immediately do full justice to all the complaints in this behalf.

LXIII. No man shall be taken or imprisoned upon the appeal of a woman, for the death of any other man than her husband.

LXIV. All unjust and illegal fines, and all amerciements imposed unjustly, and contrary to the law of the land, shall be entirely forgiven, or else be left to the decision of the five and twenty barons hereafter mentioned for the preservation of the peace, or of the major part of them, together with the aforesaid Stephen Archbishop of Canterbury, if he can be present, and others whom he shall think fit to take along with him: and if he cannot be present, the business shall notwithstanding go on without him. But so, that if one or more of the foresaid five and twenty barons be plaintiffs in the said cause, they shall be set aside,

as to what concerns this particular affair; and others be chosen in their room out of the said five and twenty, and sworn by the rest to decide that matter.

LXV. If we have disseised or dispossessed the Welch of any lands, liberties or other things, without the legal judgment of their peers, they shall immediately be restored to them. And if any dispute arises upon this head, the matter shall be determined in the marches*, by the judgment of their peers: for tenements in England according to the law of England: for tenements in Wales according to the law of Wales;† the same shall the Welch do to us and our subjects.

LXVI. As for all those things, of which any Welshman hath, without the legal judgment of his peers, been disseised or deprived by king Henry our father, or our brother king Richard, and which we either have in our hands, or others are possessed of, and we are obliged to warrant it; we shall have a respite till the time generally allowed the croises; excepting those things about which a suit is depending, or whereof an inquest hath been made by our order, before we undertook the crusade. But when we return, or if we stay at home and do not perform our pilgrimage, we will immediately do them full justice, according to the

* Marches are the limits between England and Wales. The limits between England and Scotland are likewise called marches.

† The Welch are the offspring of the ancient Britons, who would not submit to the Saxons, choosing rather to retire to the mountains and settle there, than part with their rights and liberties. In Henry the eighth's time, Wales was reunited with England, and enjoys the same privileges and immunities. Their law courts are kept in the English tongue. The king's eldest son is styled prince of Wales, duke of Cornwall and earl of Chester, the revenues accruing to him from thence are but low.

laws of the Welsh, and of the parts
afore-mentioned.

LXVII. We will without delay
dismiss the son of Lewelin, and all
the Welsh hostages, and release
them from the engagements they
entered into with us for the preser-
vation of the peace.

LXVIII. We shall treat with
Alexander king of Scots, concern-
ing the restoring of his sisters and
hostages, and his right and liber-
ties, in the same form and manner
as we shall do to the rest of our
barons of England; unless by the
engagements which his father Wil-
liam, late king of Scots, hath en-
tered into with us, it ought to be
otherwise; and this shall be left to
the determination of his peers in
our court.

LXIX. All the aforesaid customs
and liberties, which we have granted
to be holden in our kingdom, as
much as it belongs to us, towards
our people, all our subjects, as well
clergy as laity, shall observe us far
as they are concerned, towards their
dependents.

LXX. And whereas for the ho-
nour of God, and the amendment
of our kingdom, and for quieting
the discord that has arisen between
us and our barons, we have granted
all the things aforesaid; willing to
render them firm and lasting, we do
give and grant our subjects the fol-
lowing security; namely, that the
barons may choose five and twenty
barons of the kingdom, whom they
think convenient, who shall take
care, with all their might, to hold
and observe, and cause to be ob-
served, the peace and liberties we
have granted them, and by this our
present charter confirmed. So as
that, if we, our justiciary, our bai-
liffs, or any of our officers, shall
in any case fail in the performance
of them, towards any person; or
shall break through any of these
articles of peace and security, and

the offence is notified to four ba-
rons, chosen out of the five and
twenty afore-mentioned, the said
four barons shall repair to us, or
our justiciary if we are out of the
realm; and laying open the grie-
vance, shall petition to have it re-
dressed without delay; and if it is
not redressed by us, or, if we should
chance to be out of the realm, if
it is not redressed by our justiciary
within forty days, reckoning from
the time it hath been notified to us,
or to our justiciary if we should
be out of the realm; the four ba-
rons aforesaid shall lay the cause
before the rest of the five and twen-
ty barons, and the said five and
twenty barons, together with the
community of the whole kingdom,
shall distrain and distress us all the
ways possible; namely, by seizing
our castles, lands, possessions, and
in any other manner they can, till
the grievance is redressed accord-
ing to their pleasure, saving harm-
less our own person, and the per-
son of our queen and children, and
when it is redressed, they shall
obey us as before.

LXXI. And any person what-
soever in the kingdom may swear,
that he will obey the orders of the
five and twenty barons aforesaid,
in the execution of the premises,
and that he will distress us, jointly
with them, to the utmost of his
power; and we give publick and
free liberty to any one that will
swear to them, and never shall hin-
der any person from taking the
same oath.

LXXII. As for all those of our
subjects who will not, of their own
accord, swear to them to join the
five and twenty barons, in distrain-
ing and distressing us, we will issue
our order to make them take the
same oath aforesaid.

LXXIII. And if any one of the
five and twenty barons dies, or goes
out of the kingdom, or is hindered

any other way, from putting the things aforesaid in execution; the rest of the said five and twenty barons, may choose another in his room, at their discretion, who shall be sworn as the rest.

LXXIV. In all things that are committed to the charge of those five and twenty barons, if when they are all assembled together, they should happen to disagree about any matter, or some of them, when summoned, will not or cannot come; whatever is agreed upon, or enjoined by the major part of those who are present, shall be reputed as firm and valid, as if all the five and twenty had given their consent; and the aforesaid five and twenty shall swear, that all the premises they shall faithfully observe, and cause with all their power to be observed.

LXXV. And we will not by ourselves, or others, procure any thing, whereby any of these concessions and liberties be revoked, or lessened; and if any such thing be obtained, let it be null and void; neither shall we ever make use of it, either by ourselves, or any other.

LXXVI. And all the ill-will, anger, and malice, that hath arisen between us and our subjects, of the clergy and laity, from the first breaking out of the dissention between us, we do fully remit and

forgive. Moreover all trespasses occasioned by the said dissention, from Easter, in the sixteenth year of our reign, till the restoration of peace and tranquillity, we hereby entirely remit to all, clergy as well as laity, and as far as in us lies, do fully forgive.

LXXVII. We have moreover granted them our letters patents testimonial of Stephen, lord archbishop of Canterbury; Henry, lord archbishop of Dublin, and the bishops aforesaid; as also of master Pandulph, for the security and concessions aforesaid.

LXXVIII. Wherefore we will and firmly enjoin, that the church of England be free, and that all men in our kingdom have and hold, all the aforesaid liberties, rights and concessions, truly and peaceably, freely and quietly, fully and wholly, to themselves and their heirs, of us and our heirs, in all things and places for ever as is aforesaid.

LXXIX. It is also sworn, as well on our part, as on the part of the barons, that all the things aforesaid shall faithfully and sincerely be observed. Given under our hand in the presence of the witnesses above-named, and many others in the meadow called Runigmede, between Windelefore and Stanes, the fifteenth day of June, in the 17th year of our reign.

CURSORY REMARKS UPON THE FRENCH ORDER OF BATTLE,

PARTICULARLY IN THE CAMPAIGNS OF BUONAPARTE.

[FROM THE EDINBURGH ANNUAL REGISTER.]

[Concluded from our last.]

In all the grand general actions of Buonaparte, the same principle can be discovered; namely, that of combining a prompt and vigorous mode of action with a concentrated

order of battle, which it has been generally his good fortune to oppose to indecision, want of energy, and a prejudice in favour of an extended line. Where circumstances,

as in the battle of Wagram, have, as it were, compelled his enemies to present a more collected front than usual, he has employed a still greater degree of concentration on his part, so as to ensure his having the last reserve which can be brought up. In short, he does not gain the battle by the perseverance of the soldiers engaged in it, but by renewing it by means of numerous reliefs. The perseverance is in the general and his plan of tactics, not in the troops; and the principle consists not in requiring it from the latter, but in making up for their want of it. And it is a most admirable plan for a general, circumstanced like Buonaparte, whom extended means of every kind, as well as the great unity and promptitude of combining different marching columns upon a given position, enable always to appear in the field with a numerical superiority. The old mode, by which a general used to avail himself of the advantage of numbers, was by extending his wings, so that their extremities might out-flank and surround his enemy, as in the battle of Rosbach. But by this extension the line is exposed to be attacked by the concentrated force of the enemy in any given point, as really happened at that battle. The system of Buonaparte is the very reserve of this, and consists, as we have seen, in condensing his line, leaving it in length barely equal at most to the enemy's front, and often much less extended, but strengthening it in depth, by placing one division in rear of another. It is this system of repeated reserves which enables him to avail himself of the superiority of numbers to its fullest extent, and to compel the enemy to put forth their whole strength in struggling with a force equal to their own, while he can bring up, at

the chosen moment, reinforcements sufficient to throw the odds against them. That moment he waits for with the utmost coolness and patience, and even partial success does not induce him to anticipate its arrival by a premature motion in advance.

The post of the emperor, or *quartier-general*, is at the head of the strong and numerous reserve which supports the centre. From that point all orders are issued, and to that point, with inexpressible celerity, all communications are made. In general, the French permit the enemy to commence the attack and content themselves with maintaining a severe fire of musketry and artillery. No regiment of infantry or cavalry is permitted to advance beyond the line of battle in order to charge; for in French tactics they adhere strictly to the military rule, that the particular movement of each battalion must always bear reference to the general movements of the whole body,—a rule which is of course most easily attended to in a condensed and concentrated array, through which orders can be transmitted with accuracy and promptitude. On the other hand, they are prompt to avail themselves of the partial and unsustained advance of any part of the opposing force. Thus at Austerlitz the imperial Horse guards of Alexander precipitated themselves on the French line, and broke through it. But it was an unsupported movement of indignant impatience; and no sooner were they in the rear of the line which they had broken, than they were themselves flanked and routed, or cut to pieces by the cavalry of Buonaparte's reserves. At Talavera, too, the gallant impetuosity of the guards endangered, by a rash advance, the victory of the day. But they were supported and covered by directions of a ge-

neral, whose eye nothing escapes. The French then do not hazard these partial and dangerous movements, especially in the commencement of an action, considering it, and justly, as of more importance to preserve the unity of their order, than to grasp hastily at any subaltern advantage. They are aware that when the day is far advanced, the victory must remain with that party who can last bring into the field a strong force of fresh troops. It is often in the very moment that the enemy suppose themselves victors that this unexpected apparition turns the scale of battle. Their advantages cannot have been acquired without loss, tumult and disorder, and it is while they are in that state that they are suddenly pressed by fresh troops, who in this moment are permitted to indulge all their national vivacity of courage and enterprize. Thus in one of Buonaparte's bulletins concerning the battle of Friedland, it is stated, that after the conflict had continued a great part of the day, the emperor resolved to put an end to it, (here is a proof he was rather apprehensive of the result,) and came up with a strong reserve. We must leave it to those who wish to prosecute the study, to trace this principle of movement (it is a general one, and subject to various modifications) through the great general actions fought by Buonaparte, cautioning him at the same time, that he is not to discover it in the encounter of small armies, where all the ground is under the eye of both generals, and where neither could make a strong detachment in reserve without the other being aware of its existence, and making a similar reserve on his side to encounter it. He must also observe, that in some of Buonaparte's grand engagements, al-

though the principle of the formation be the same, yet its operation is not so simple or so obvious at first sight as in the battle of Marengo. In some of these, as at Wagram and Jena, the same concentration arising from a more than usual number of reserves, enabled the French general to render his own line impenetrable, whilst he turned his enemy's flank, or availed himself of any opening in their line to pierce it. But these latter uses to which reserves may be applied, are only resorted to by Buonaparte when the conduct of the opposing general is more than usually incautious.

It remains to shew in what manner the French masquer their formation, and occupy the attention of the enemy along the full extent of their long order of battle, while in fact they only oppose a short and condensed front to the centre of their line. This is accomplished by means of their numerous light troops, which were at first formed after the example of the irregular sharpshooters of America, as the readiest mode of training their conscripts. But the genius of the French soldier seems particularly adapted to this light and skirmishing species of warfare. The loose order, or rather the dispersion of these tirailleurs, enables a number comparatively small to occupy the attention and harass the movements of the enemy's extended front, if unprovided with similar forces.— Thus these numerous irregulars act as a screen to their own lines, while it is impossible for those who are assailed by them to discern whether they are supported by battalions, or in what order the French general is arraying his forces in the rear of this swarm of hornets. Thus they remain in complete ignorance of the French disposition, and dare not of course attempt to change their own; and while the wings

waste their force, nay sometimes sustain heavy loss in encountering this harassing, and, as it were, unsubstantial enemy, their centre has to sustain the full weight of the French line, concentrated as we have described it. This mode of warfare was peculiarly severe on the Austrians; for it happened, by some unfortunate fatality, that in her passion for the Prussian discipline, that power judged it fit to convert the greater part of her Croats, the finest light troops in the world, into heavy battalions, and thus diminished their strength of this particular description of force at the moment when the fate of battle was about to depend upon it. The excellence of those light corps which Austria retained could not supply their great inferiority of numbers; and thus in that sort of minor battle of advanced guards, which is maintained by the light troops, and of which it is usually the object not to beat back the enemy, but to distract his attention, and by engaging him in a confused struggle with a foe not the less formidable because yielding and almost invisible, to bring him up to their own line crippled and disheartened, the French acquired a superiority, which enabled them, without the least risque of being outflanked, to contract their own line within the extent necessary for employing the so-often-mentioned principle of reserves.

But it may be asked, to what tends this exposition? The French have been almost uniformly victorious, and how avails it to what their victories can be ascribed? Our answer is twofold. Such an investigation as we have attempted leads us to due appreciation of the talents of Buonaparte, instead of blind terror or blunder admiration. We have no wish to insinuate a disrespect for his talents, having (as they

unfortunately possess) the disposal of such extraordinary force at their command; in the words of a warrior speaking of his enemy, we grant him

—Strong, and skilful to his strength,
Fierce to his skill, and to his fierceness valiant.

But it will remain to be inquired whether his genius is of such a transcendent and overpowering nature as a distant contemplation of his exploits might induce us to believe. His plan, of which we have endeavoured to develop the principle, is indeed well fitted to ensure the most numerous of two encountering armies the full superiority of its numbers; but there is no brilliant genius requisite to the formation. It is not an invention like Frederick's discovery of a new principle of moving an extended line. The latter is like the discovery of a mechanical power, and must in one shape or other be useful while armies are opposed to each other.—The system of Buonaparte is only a peculiar mode of employing the same power previously discovered, which may be destroyed by any counteracting system, or superseded by any improvement on the application of the principle upon which it turns. In all his great engagements, (that of Austerlitz perhaps excepted,) Buonaparte seems never even to have attempted manœuvring, that is, he never attempted to gain for his army a position which must give it an immediate and decided advantage over the enemy. Now this art we take to be the consummation of military ability, as being that by which military skill supplies the lack both of strength and of numbers. In the battles of the king of Prussia and other distinguished generals, we are led to augur the fortune of the day from the dispositions their ability enabled them

to make relative to their enemy; and in the progress of the action we gradually observe our expectations realized. But Buonaparte's dispositions never authorize any conclusion as to his final success; and the imperfection of his positions, as well as the inferiority of his troops, is frequently conspicuous by the defeat of his army during the greater part of the day, until at length the fortune is turned by that in which his secret seems to consist, the appearance, namely, of a numerous reserve, fresh and in order. But it may be asked, is that not ability, which secures to itself the effect of bringing up the last reserve? Undoubtedly it is, but of a subordinate and somewhat vulgar nature. It is the game of a chess player, who, conscious of superiority by a single piece, goes on exchanging man for man, because he knows that the lower he can reduce both parties, the more his numerical superiority will be likely to gain the ascendant. Independent, therefore, of the waste of human blood, which conquerors seldom attend to, Buonaparte's road to victory seems greatly to depend upon his bringing a predominating force into the field, and upon his enemy's pertinacious adherence to the insatuated system of exposing an extended line to the action of a deep and reinforced column.

But the second object of our remarks is yet more important. Not only do we think the system of Buonaparte too obvious and too coarse to claim the praise of very high genius for the general who has trusted so constantly to it, but we conceive that it also admits of being easily counteracted. Supposing that an enemy not inferior, at least not very much inferior in numbers, encountered Buonaparte with a line condensed like his own,

covered in front by sharp-shooters, supported by numerous and powerful reserves, and capable from his concentration, of suddenly executing general and combined movements, his ordinary scheme is entirely disconcerted, and the two armies meet upon equal terms.— Now where this is the case, uniform experience shews 1st, That the bravery of the French, however ardent, is rather of a volatile and spirited nature, than what we term steadiness and intrepidity; and, 2dly, that where sufficient skill is united to the latter qualities, they, like what is called *bottom* by the prize-fighters, secure superiority in a long action. 3dly, The French general must be necessarily embarrassed and disconcerted by the neutralization of the very plan on which he had rested for conquest. For these combined reasons, we conceive, that if deprived of the benefit of this favourite manœuvre, the balance would probably incline against the French: Nay, we are able to shew an example in modern war, where Buonaparte's own system was successfully employed against himself by the Russian General Benningzen, at the battles of Pultusk and Eylau. In sustaining the French attack at Pultusk, the Cossacks and other light troops of the Russians formed as it were an outwork, or advanced battle, to their main-line, and not only completely overpowered the *eclaireurs* and *tirailleurs*, who were thrown forward, as usual, to protect and mark the advance of the French columns, but greatly embarrassed, interrupted, and crippled the columns themselves before they could reach the Russian position, properly so called. At Eylau, the counterpart of the French system was equally successfully provided against and counteracted by the Russians.

Reserve after reserve was brought up by the French, but at the close of a long and desperate battle, the last reserve brought into action was that of the Russians. In both these battles, the Russians had decidedly the advantage,—a fact which might have remained concealed from Europe, but for the clear, distinct, and able statement of Sir Robert Wilson in his late publication, which he himself invites the reader to contrast with the partial and studiously confused bulletins of Buonaparte, which form part of his appendix. It may be supposed strange, that the generals of a much more uncultivated people should be able to imitate, and by imitating to foil, a system of tactics, before which the generals of Austria and Prussia had given way. But it should be remembered, that the Russians had conducted wars upon a very broad scale, and though their operations were against barbarians, they were, perhaps for that very reason, more certainly brought back to general principles, and freed from the prejudice of military men, who, having only studied in one school, expected their antagonist strictly to conform to their own game and their own rules for playing it. Let it be remembered, that it was a Russian emperor, who, by simply covering his line-of-battle by a chain of closed redoubts, instead of the combined fortified lines then in use, broke, at Pultowa, those Swedish infantry, whom every general in Europe, nay, Marlborough himself, regarded with respect and apprehension. The French themselves were comparatively undisciplined when they devised this very system of reserves, as affording them the means of availing themselves of their numbers against the superior skill of their adversaries. We cannot for-

get the reproaches cast upon Lord Wellington as a *Scapoy General*. Had he not learned his art upon a broad and extended plan, such as India alone has yet afforded to a British general, where else could he have acquired the art of providing for the necessities of a large army, the principles of combination necessary for conducting its extended movements, in short, the complicated branches of military skill by which he is now driving before him those hordes, whose greatest disgrace it is, that they cannot shelter their abominable rapine and atrocity under the barbarous ignorance of Seiks or Maharrattas.

It may indeed be pleaded too justly, that the acknowledged imperfections in the Russian commissariat, the deficiencies of their staff, and, above all, the deplorable neglect of their government to supply and reinforce their armies, deprived them of the fruits of victory; while the active energy of Buonaparte drained his whole acquisitions of every soldier, or man who could be made such, to resume the field with a force superior to that which had foiled and defeated him. These considerations, however, do not respect our present subject, which refers merely to the field of battle, on which, we repeat, the Russians have neutralized Buonaparte's favourite manœuvre. It may be briefly noticed, that the inhabitants of the peninsula, less fortunate in facing him in the field, and who at Tudela experienced discomfiture from the effects of that system which we have detailed, have yet shewn, that when a general battle is lost, the advantages of the victory may be in a great degree intercepted. The inveterate and desperate hostility of the Spaniards and Portuguese, so widely diffused through the peas-

santry of the country, has utterly destroyed the boasted system of intercourse and communication, by which the march of one French column was made to correspond with that of all who were acting in the same kingdom. Near as the events and positions were, it is almost impossible that Massena could have known the fall of Badajos when he broke up from Santarem, or that Soult anticipated the retreat of Massena when he himself fell back into Spain, instead of advancing into Alentejo, to make a diversion, and afford support to the *enfant gâté* whom Fortune was dropping out of her arms. But the general and inveterate enmity of the peasantry entirely annihilated all the fair system of unity and constant correspondence, which in Germany the French armies maintained at any given distance. Couriers, aides-de-camp, orderly men, and disguised spies, were alike the objects of suspicion to the Ordenanza, who, rather than miss securing their letters, would steadily rip up their bowels,—a sad interruption to a regular and friendly correspondence. And thus these two great generals seem to have known little more of each other's motions, than if they had been next door neighbours in Lon-

don. The self-devoted patriotism, with which the Portuguese destroyed every part of their own property, which could afford supply or assistance to the invading army, rendered the genius of the French for the commissariat department equally unavailing. Nay, even *les grands moyens* themselves have proved fruitless in a country, where Lord Wellington has declared, that none, even of the lowest description, forgot, through any compelled intercourse with the French, the duty which they owed to their country. We glance at these subjects, though distinct from that which we proposed to enlarge upon, merely to shew, that as the French system of tactics in the field of battle is far from infallible, so neither are the other means which they employ in facilitating the operations of the campaign less liable to derangement, where the population of an invaded country is confident in their own leaders, and true to their own cause.

We now close these desultory observations, by stating, in justification of the tone of decision which we have presumed to adopt, that the theory they contain was deduced from an attentive perusal of the plans of Buonaparte's battles published at Paris.

For the Monthly Museum.

DIABLE BOITEUX ; OR, THE HIGH HILL OF BAGDAD.

BE not alarmed gentle reader, I shall not add one sprite to the catalogue of demonology: it is the same *Asmodeus* that you have known for years. I had just finished the Maxims of that ingenious, but discouraging Frenchman, Rochefacault, when pop, one, two, three, I spied the little

devil Boiteux, perched upon the table before me—*Bon jour Monsieur Le Fieud*, said I—So, so, I must be packed off like a pannier ass upon every trivial occasion, said *Asmodeus*, sneeringly.—Who sent for you? said I:—the Chevalier Rochefacault sent me to prove to you, that every thing he has

said in his *Maxims* is true, and that man is the same selfish and worthless being he has there described him.—I shook my head doubtingly. The ignorant will be convinced only by experience, said he—here put on my mantle—we must instantly ascend the high hill of Bagdad:—he had scarcely uttered these words, when I felt myself propelled along with the rapidity of lightning:—there said he, after travelling for an hour at the rate of five hundred miles a minute—*attendez*.—I felt myself on firm ground—the rapidity of the motion had almost taken away my breath and sight; he, however, placed a cordial to my lips, which instantly revived me; he then gave me a small phial, with which he desired me to bathe my eyelids.—I cannot convey an idea of the sensation I at that moment experienced—I looked around me—I stood upon an eminence—beneath was the famous city of Bagdad—I beheld every thing with a perception and clearness that cannot be described—it was mid-day—the streets were crowded—all was bustle and business—but the phial occasioned such a transparency of vision—that I not only saw every thing as distinctly as in a well regulated picture, but the elixir likewise produced such a powerful effect, that I could read the thoughts and past actions of every person I beheld.—I was at first horribly shocked at the scenes of iniquity that were presented to my view by this superhuman power, and I felt a strong inclination to put my hands to my eyes, and rub out, if possible, the diabolical effect, but was withheld by the *fiend*, and that overbalance of curiosity, which governs all our actions.—There, said *Asmodeus*, are you not highly gratified? did you not wish to see man as he is, naked and unadorn-

ed?—Alas! said I, this cannot be a nation of human beings—they are devils incarnate—it is a diabolical vision you have presented to my imagination:—you deceive me, *Asmodeus*, men could not live in such a state—they have neither Faith, Hope, nor Charity amongst them—they prey upon each other like the cadaverous animals of the desert:—look at that man, see how he tortures his brother—read his thoughts with me, *Asmodeus*.—Ha! they are rivals in trade—he will not directly pick his pocket, or cut his throat—no—that would be felony—that would be death—but see the wily winding and designing tricks of him—he has caught him in the toil—he has him down. Oh! *Asmodeus*, you mock me, this cannot be the famous city of Bagdad. He pulled me a little nearer to him. You have been at Bagdad before, said he—behold—yonder is the square—in front is the *Temple of Science*—that up-ble pile of elegant architecture on the left, is the *Mart of Public Credit*—here is the *Equestrian Statue*, and on the right you may behold the shops of the *Traders* and *Money Changers*:—the square was at this instant crowded by a numerous throng of people—they were passing rapidly to and fro, each ardently engaged in his own particular concerns—though indiscriminately intermingled, I could perceive from the supernatural power the elixir had given me, that they were divided into two unequal parts, a ferocious animosity that had existed for ages governed them in all their public conduct, whilst their private actions were covered over by a deceitful gloss of seeming friendship, when mutual interest made them necessary to each other:—indeed, I thought at first, it had been a carnival or high festival, and that the people were

characteristic masks of deformity—but this effect was also, I suppose, produced by the operation of the phial. I mentioned it to *Asmodeous*, who smiled at my simplicity:—he then pointed out several that were more active in the persecution of their fellow-beings than the rest—many passed me whom I had known before, but they were so disfigured for want of the drapery of deceit, that I could scarcely believe they were the same. Look at that fat man, said *Asmodeous*, he is just returned from an embassy to the ancient city of Bassora, the emporium of the kingdom—you see how contented and self-satisfied he is—you can perceive nothing interested in him—no sinister motive in his conduct—the friend of humanity—the pure and patriotic lover of his country—all his actions flowing from the most sub-

lime source of universal liberality and love. I thought *Asmodeous* had been sincere—I turned round anxiously—and in one glance I was convinced of my error.

Behind me apart from the rest, I beheld the Merchants and Factors—they were consulting together on the most likely means of producing an artificial scarcity—and to blight, if possible, the blessings of a naturally productive soil:—many of them were the demagogues and favourites of the people—I looked into their hearts—I beheld the true springs and motives of their conduct—I shuddered with horror—I was ashamed of my species.—Alas! said I, this sight can be no longer borne—we will enter into the *Temple of Science*—we will regale ourselves with the wisdom of the wise.

ARMY UNDER BUONAPARTE ENGAGED AGAINST RUSSIA, IN 1812.

WHILE the French remained at Moscow they occupied the house of Messrs. Thomson, Rowan & Co. English Bankers, as the *Chancellerie de l'Etat Major*, at the head of which was Berthier. They quit- ted the city in such a hurry, that a great part of the official documents was left behind; and among others the returns of the strength of the French army, and of the casualties which occurred during its advance to Moscow: these came into possession of Mr. Rowan, when he returned to his house, and accurate copies of them have been brought to this country by an English gentleman; they are as follow:—

Returns of the French Army, on its com-
mencing the Campaign against Russia.

Corps.	Men.
1st, Marshal Davoust.....	80,000

2d, ———— Ordinat.....	45,000
3d, ———— Ney.....	45,000
4th, Italy—Viceroy of Italy, composed of the Italian Guard, 15,000 Italians, 15,000 French...	55,000
5th Westphalians and other Ger- mans, at first under the command of Jerome, but he being sent home by order of Buonaparte, General Dumont took the command.....	30,000
6th, Poles, under the orders of Prince Poniatowski.....	60,000
7th, Saxons, under General Regnier.....	30,000
8th, 15,000 French troops, 35,000 Prussians ditto, 10,000 of the Confederation.....	60,000
9th, Commanded by Marshal Victor, consisted of 1st, French troops, 2d, troops of the Confe- deration.....	45,000
10th Corps, commanded by Marshals Moncey, Bessieres, and Mortier—1st, 20,000 of the Old Guard—2d, 15,000 of the New Guard—3d, 5,000 of the Old Horse Guard.....	40,000

11th Corps, commanded by Marshal Augereau, and which remained in Prussia—1st, French troops, 15,000; 2d, Confederation of the Rhine, 10,000—3d, Neapolitans, 12,000;—4th, Swiss 4,000.....

A corps of Austrians, under the orders of the Prince of Schwarzenberg.....

Total of Infantry, 561,000

All the Cavalry, with 10,000 Light Infantry, under the orders of the King of Naples..... 35,000

A grand park of Light Artillery, of 150 pieces, with 400 Caissons..... 3,000

A grand park of Foot Artillery of Reserve, of 160 pieces, with 600 Caissons..... 4,000

[These two corps were under the orders of the General of Division, Inspector of Artillery, Count D'Eble.]

A Battalion of Pontooners..... 900

Two Battalions of Pioneers..... 1,800

A detachment of Miners..... 300

Eighteen companies of Sappers..... 1,800

A Battalion of Carpenters..... 900

Ten Maritime Engineers..... 10

Three Battalions of the Train for conducting waggons, carriages, &c..... 2,500

A detachment of Masons..... 300

Four Battalions of Bakers..... 3,000

Commissaries for Provisions..... 2,000

[The above, with the suite of the Emperor, of the Marshals and Generals, of the King of Naples

and the Viceroy of Italy, the Physicians, Surgeons, Apothecaries, &c..... 55,000

General total of the Grand

French Army..... 616,500

N. B. Every corps of the Grand Army had with it a park of light artillery of reserve, amounting to 165 pieces, and 523 ammunition waggons. Besides each division of infantry had 16 pieces of artillery, each regiment having eight. The total of artillery with the regiments of the line, was 789 pieces, and of the ammunition waggons, 1568. The Imperial Guard alone had 100 pieces of cannon.

General total of pieces of artillery, 1194.

Ditto of ammunition waggons or caissons, 2768.

The army consisted of eleven corps, commanded by Marshals Berthier, Davoust, Ney, Augereau, Victor, Bessieres, Oudinot, Macdonald, Moncey, Mortier, and Leferbre. There were 49 divisions, and 98 regiments of the line, exclusive of the Guards.

[The above is extracted from the original documents in the *Chancellerie* of the Major-general of the army, the Prince of Neufchatel, Berthier.]

COLLECTANEA.

Ancient Tomb.—Winchester, Oct. 2.—

On opening a vault, last week, in the middle aisle of the west transept of the cathedral, a stone coffin was discovered immediately under the surface of the pavement, supposed to contain the remains either of a prelate or a mitred abbot. A ring of pure gold, with an smethyst, about the size and shape of a turkey's eye, set therein, and part of a crown, much decayed, were found in the coffin, but few vestiges of the body remained. The ring was in good preservation, and greatly resembles that on the left hand of the effigy of William of Wykeham, as represented on the beautiful effigy-tomb in the same cathedral. The steel and ivory of the crucifix were of

metal, and the shaft of wood, quite plain. This affords internal evidence of its being of a much earlier date than that of Wykeham, which was composed of silver, gilt, of exquisite workmanship, and is preserved in the chapel of New College, Oxford.

Huntingtonian Relics.—At the sale of the effects of Mr. Huntington, at Pentonville, lately, an *old arm chair*, intrinsically worth *fifty shillings*, actually sold for *sixty guineas*; and many other articles fetched equally high prices, so anxious were his admirers to obtain some precious memorial of that preacher! His *best spectacles*, we understand, fetched *sixteen guineas*.

Social Economy, and the Useful Arts.

NOTICES

OF RECENT INVENTIONS AND IMPROVEMENTS.

Specification of a Patent granted to J. S. Eschamzier, Esq. of Gibraltar, and H. C. Jennings, of Marchmont-st. Russell-Square, gent. for a new mode of manufacturing, using and applying certain articles, by means of which, mariners and other persons may be saved from drowning.

A piece of strong calico, 13 feet, 4 by 2 feet 8, is to be doubled and sowed in eleven equal sections, and at first but partly united; so that a quantity of cork, proportioned to the size of the bed coarsely pulverised, may be introduced between. To the size specified in the patent a bushel of cork is required. The mill to be used to grind it is of the same description with those now employed for the pulverization of peas, beans, &c. The quantity of cork must be equally divided into as many parts as there are sections of calico; and each section must be better than two-thirds full.— This done, each section is to be sowed up, and four or five pounds of horse hair are then to be tacked over the outside. A bag must now be made sufficiently large to contain these sections, into which they are to be slipped, being thus prepared and sown up. Having tufted the bed in the usual manner, a hood by means of a cushion, is fastened to it; so contrived as to tighten under the chin; and tapes are sowed on various parts for the purpose of lashing the body to it. These tapes and strings must be of sufficient strength to secure the bed and body,

so that they be almost one substance. An hole is made through which the head passes, and is received in the hood, whilst the rest of the body is safely lashed by the strings, so that the body can swim with perfect ease.

The entire art of rendering these beds soft and buoyant, depends on the style of pulverising the cork; so that it may be neither too hard to sleep on, nor too soft to float. Boat cushions may be made in the same manner.

The utility of this invention is too well attested by the suggestions of humanity, as well as by the evidences of reason, and of sense, to render it uninteresting to the inhabitants of a maritime country, the safety of which must depend on the security of its seamen, and the glory of which must be proportioned to their number equally as to their valour. Therefore it is to be hoped that inventions of this nature, may meet with that encouragement which they absolutely command us to bestow.

Specification of a patent to George Alexander, Watch-maker, in Leith, for an improved method of suspending the mariners compass.

FROM the center of the metallic box, stands up a perpendicular fork, having two prongs, and between these prongs is hung a gimble ring, within which is suspended a small cup, the bottom of agate or other suitable substance. In the center of the magnetic bar, on

which the card is placed; there is a large circular opening, to admit through the fork; at the north and south sides of which two small upright pieces of metal are fixed, holding between them a large gimble ring; on which ring is erected, at the east and west sides, a metallic arch, in the center of which directed downwards, is the point which rests in the agate cup below. On the top of the arch there is placed a thin piece of concave brass; about one inch diameter, and in the center of the glass, immediately above, is fixed a prong, pointing downwards, which acts within the cavity of the metal below.

By this improvement the continued friction to which the common compass is subject is obviated; the card will stand perfectly steady in heavy gales, by which the ship may steer a correct course; in mild weather it will be more nimble than the compass now in use; were the box to lose its horizontal position, the point and agate will remain perpendicular to each other, and even if the card and box be put off their level, the compass will traverse freely; and lastly by the construction of the prong and of the concave piece of brass, nothing short of breaking the glass will derange its action. These are the advantages which it is said to possess, which if verified, cannot fail to recommend its general use.

Use of Gunpowder for extinguishing fire in Chimnies.

THAT under certain circumstances, the interior parts of chimnies are liable to take fire, is a fact which nobody can presume to deny; and the greater the distance of the hearth from the surface of the earth, the more ale there will be to feed the fire; and conse-

quently a larger and more violent flame will be emitted. The cure must therefore be effected by cutting off the communication with the external atmosphere. In order to effect this, some people place a vessel filled with water on the hearth; but the vapour does not rise in quantities or force sufficient to answer the purpose: others throw water down the chimney, which is inconsiderable and ridiculous, as it is very evident that it will pass through the centre and not at all communicate with the fire.

Several methods have been prescribed; but the surest and readiest is to burn gunpowder, previously so moistened, that the particles will cohere together in the hearth; and to repeat the process until the fire falls down the chimney. The sudden combustion of the powder robs the atmosphere of that ingredient oxygen, which supports flame. This component part of the air, being confined to the hearth, leaves the fire in the chimney unfed, and in consequence it will be effectually extinguished.

On Tanning from the Bark of Larch. By THOMAS WHITE, Esq. From the Communications of the Board of Agriculture.

SOME years ago, after my late father's plantations at Woodlands, near Durham, had made considerable progress, (for which he had the honour of receiving from the Society of Arts and Sciences in London nine gold and two silver medals,) he, amongst other projects, thought that the bark of the larch tree might be useful in tanning leather; but was prevailed upon to give up the experiment by some person who, I suppose, classed this tree with the fir tribe instead of the cedars. — However, in June last, whilst some workmen were taking off the bark from a number of larch trees in-

tended for building, they found the nails of their fingers stained, which induced me to try whether it would tan leather or not, a purpose I was very soon satisfied it would answer most effectually. I then procured two calf-skins, of equal price, weight, and substance, and immersed one in an infusion of oak-bark, of amazing fine quality, such as can rarely be purchased, and the other in the same proportion of larch-bark, from a very small tree, each skin remaining exactly the same time in its respective tan-pit; and during the operation I repeatedly weighed a measure of larch liquor against the oak, and always found the former to preponderate; the consequence of which was, that the skin tanned with larch felt thicker in the hand, and heavier, and was also finer in the grain, and of a lighter colour.

I sent these two skins to the Society of Arts and Sciences in August last, and put as many hides, equally divided, into each of the two tan-pits as nearly exhausted their strength; at the expiration of which time the larch liquid appeared to have the superiority both in astringency and weight.

I have been since employed in tanning hides of cows and horses with larch-bark, which of course require much longer time than calf-skins, but promise just as fair to arrive at perfection. I have tried also equal quantities of larch and oak barks, and mashed in hot water, and applied when cold to the skins, and with the same effect as in the former case. I also compared birch with the larch, but was soon convinced that the former, from its slowness in tanning, and apparently exhausted state, after proceeding a certain length, was very inferior, and yet it is sold in my neighbourhood for half the

price of oak. What then I ask, must be the value of larch?

Although I am happy to think, that the discovery, from the immense plantations in this country, will in some measure make the importation of bark unnecessary, I feel an additional pleasure in the certainty of its answering other very important purposes, viz. of promoting planting, and inducing gentlemen to thin their woods, which, in my professional excursions of laying out grounds, and planting by contract, I have often most strenuously recommended, but without prevailing upon some to do so, from the difficulty of selling the weedings, which expense will be much more than repaid by the price of the bark, should the body of the tree even be suffered to rot on the ground.

It must be observed, that oak-bark can only be taken from the tree during about two months in the year, whereas larch can be collected from about March to the end of August, and at infinitely a cheaper rate, as a whole tree, whatever length it may be, can be stripped from one end to the other entire with the greatest ease.

Since leaving Woodlands, I have received a most favourable report from a tanner, who has converted the leather into shoes, of which he speaks very highly, as well as of its superiority for gloves, saddles, &c.; he adds also, that, in his opinion it is not only equal to oak-bark, but even better, on account of its tanning quicker.

Doctor Hope speaks favourably of it. I have also enquired of Paterson, the saddler, about buff leather, who manufactures it; and he says no bark is used in the process, but only oil.

Memorandum.—In another com.

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munication from Mr. White, dated June 26, 1812, he states, that "on passing through Hexham, he was happy to see shoes made from leather tanned with larch-bark; and was told, that the glovers were so well convinced of its excellency, that they declared they would use nothing else if they could get a sufficient supply." In addition to which pleasing intelligence, he has had an order for much more larch-bark annually than he can supply, for making leather of a light colour for book-binding, &c.

The experiments made by Mr. White, induce him to believe, that larch-bark is not only equal to oak in every particular, but superior in regard to the articles above mentioned, and for many other purposes.

Description of a new Machine for raising Water for the Irrigation of Land. By DENYS DE MONTFORT.

NOTHING can be of greater advantage to the cultivators of land than to have plenty of water at their disposal, as nothing is more easy than to cut ditches or furrows in the land to be filled with water, that it may be always at hand when it is required: but, notwithstanding the vicinity of water, it frequently happens that the furrows cannot very easily be filled on account of various local circumstances. Many machines have been contrived for the purposes of raising water for irrigation, but in general they have not attained the proposed end in every respect, as some are very expensive, and consequently beyond the means of many cultivators, and others take up too much time and labour. There is, besides, another sort, which are subject to certain conditions and localities, and of this description are those which are put in mo-

tion by the wind or by streams.

In this class may be ranked Montgolfier's hydraulic ram; which, although a very ingenious invention, absolutely requires a fall and current of water, as a moving force, to raise the water above its level: and if it is placed on the borders of a river it encumbers the bed of the river, and impedes the navigation. Struck with these inconveniences, and especially that this machine, which in other respects is so complete, remains immovable, and is of no use in ponds and standing waters, we have directed our efforts to the contrivance of a simple machine, not expensive in its first construction, easily kept in order, and capable of raising water under any circumstances even to the summit of a mountain: and in order to obviate every objection, as well as to embrace every required object, we have strictly confined ourselves to the following conditions:

1st. Simplicity in the construction.

2d. That it should be maintained and repaired at a trifling expense.

3d. That it should be easily removed and transported from place to place.

4th. That it should be capable of being applied to the most rapid and confined streams, as well as to ponds and other stagnant waters.

5th. That it should require no subterraneous conduits.

6th. That it should be capable of being kept in a place for any length of time.

7th. That it should require but little labour to work it.

8th. That it should be capable of being put in motion by any moving power whatever.

The whole machine consists only of a common ladder, made strong, and with square sides, furnished with pulleys, and a common pair

of bellows fixed to it, which are also made as strong as possible. In the place of an end or short tube these bellows have a prolonged tube attached to the neck, or rather a succession of tubes screwed on to each other, and which contain a valve at their base, that closes by its own weight, and by that means prevents the water above it from returning. The bellows have besides a handle on the moveable wing, which serves to hold the cord that is made to put the whole in motion. And this cord, which runs over the four pulleys, is joined at the top by a ring, which being seized by the hands, and moved to the right and the left, puts the bellows into play, raises the water in the ascending tube, and conducts it by means of the bent tubes wherever it is wanted.

Now, the fact is, that the bellows thus put into motion have the same effect in water as in the air, which is pushed by the pressure of the fluid with which it is filled, and has no issue but by the tube, supposing the holes in the side of the bellows to be closed by the valve. And whatever be the length and diameter of the ascending tubes, the water will be raised exactly in proportion as the power employed exceeds its weight.

This machine is so simple, that it is surprising it should not have occurred to any person before.

Method of giving a fine Nankeen Colour to Cotton Stuffs.

A decoction of willow leaves is made with pure water; it is passed through a piece of linen, and a solution of glue and water is poured on it until the decoction ceases to be turbid. The willow-leaves contain, besides the colouring principle, a considerable portion of tannin, which furnishes the colour that is to be given to the stuff; on

this account, therefore, the glue is mixed with the decoction, in order to precipitate the tannin.

The decoction thus prepared may be used for dyeing spun or woven cotton without any further preparation. The shades of colour may be varied at pleasure. When the dye is completed the cotton is put into a bath of nitric acid and water, to give the colour more brilliancy and solidity. This colour is so fine and solid, and the process so simple, that it may be prepared without the assistance of dyers.

Account of fine and solid Colours given to Woollen and Silk obtained from the Green Shells of the Indian Chestnut.

M. Geitner has made several experiments with the green shells of the Indian chestnut, by boiling first an ounce of these shells, that have fallen from the tree, for an hour in a glazed earthen vessel, with a pound of river water. He obtained by this means a decoction of a red brown colour, which there was no occasion to filter, and in which the tannin was precipitated by a weak solution of glue. The precipitate filled about one-third of the glass vessel that was employed in the operation. The same experiment repeated, with the shells dried upon a stove, gave the same result; but it precipitated only a small quantity of tannin.

To make a comparative trial he boiled half an ounce of gall-nuts, and mixed the brown decoction with some glue water: the liquid immediately formed a precipitate that entirely filled the vessel.

Being desirous of examining the tincturing virtue of the red brown decoction made from the chestnut shells, he boiled a piece of white cloth in it for an hour. At the end of that time the cloth acquired a fine fawn colour, approaching to a

red, and which, treated with sulphate of iron, changed to a very deep olive-green.

He then continued his experiments, by submitting, successively, pieces of cloth and silk to the action of sulphate of iron, sulphate of copper, acetate of alumine, arseniate of potash, a solution of alum, muriate of tin, acetate of lead, nitrate of zinc, sulphate of manganese, sulphate of zinc, &c. &c. and obtained several shades of solid colours upon woollen and silk, which, after being exposed to the sun and air for several weeks, underwent no alteration whatever.

M. Geitner concludes, from all these experiments,

1st. That the green shell of the Indian chesnut is one of the most valuable indigenous colouring substances, since the colours extracted from it by means of the different mordants are of the greatest solidity, with the exception of the deep

green that is produced by sulphuret of iron.

2d. That the finest and most solid colours are obtained from it by means of sulphate of copper, arseniate of potash, muriate of tin, acetate of lead, and nitrate of zinc.

Preparation of a fire-proof and water-proof Cement.

TO half a pint of milk put an equal quantity of vinegar, in order to curdle it; then separate the curd from the whey, and mix the whey with the whites of four or five eggs, beating the whole well together. When it is well mixed add a little quick-lime, through a sieve, until it has acquired the consistence of a thick paste.

With this cement broken vessels and cracks of all kinds may be mended. It dries quickly, and resists the action of fire and water.

A VISIT TO THE PHILADELPHIA PRISON, &c.

(Continued from page 39.)

ALL the prisoners rise at the dawn of day; so that after making their beds, cleansing and washing themselves, and other little necessary arrangements, they generally commence their labour by sun-rise. After this, no convict can go into any other part of the house, than the place assigned for his business; they can, on no pretence, leave their shops, or permit any other prisoner to come into them, without giving immediate information to their keeper. The rooms in which they work, are not locked. About seven are in a shop, one of whom is appointed by the jailer, to notice all offences, and in default of it, is punished according to the rules.

For this, however, there is no necessity, as they commonly work under the mutual inspection of each other. The keepers constantly parade among the prisoners, in the court-yards and passages.

At the approach of dusk the bell is rung, when they must leave off labour, immediately repair to their rooms, and form themselves in such a manner that the keeper may have a perfect view of every person belonging to each room. They remain thus formed, till he calls the roll, and counts them: he then locks them up in their apartments, but without candle or fire, except in extreme cold weather. From this time half an hour is allowed

them to adjust their bedding, after which they are not permitted to converse aloud, or make a noise.

Four watchmen are obliged to continue in the prison all night; two are within the iron-grated door, and two in the inspector's room.—In their turns they patrol the passages constantly, and strike the bell every hour. They report, on the morning of the succeeding day, any remarkable occurrence of the night, to the clerk of the prison, who commits the same to writing, and lays it before the inspectors at their next meeting.

In this prison there are none of those scenes of filth and misery generally exhibited in jails; on the contrary, industry, cheerfulness, and cleanliness prevail in every direction; not the least unwholesome or even offensive smell is to be perceived—the floors are white, and perfectly free from dirt.

By the laws of the prison, the house must be swept every day by some one of the convicts. The duty is taken in rotation. It is also washed once a week in the winter, and twice in the summer; and twice a year completely white-washed. A good proof of the cleanliness of the place is, that out of eight thousand and sixty persons, who were confined in the several apartments of the prison (the debtors jail included) from the 28th day of September, 1780, to the 5th of the same month in 1790, only twelve died of natural deaths. Since the latter of these periods, the establishment of the new system of discipline has produced much better arrangements, as well in respect to the comfort and health, as to the good order and government of the prisoners. This has been evident in several instances.—The physician's bill, which formerly amounted to 1280 dollars a year, seldom exceeds at present

160; and, excepting in cases of contagious diseases, not more than two prisoners had died from June, 1791, to March, 1795, a period of nearly four years. During the fall of 1793, when the yellow fever had extended its fatal ravages over every part of the city and suburbs of Philadelphia, only six persons in the prison were taken sick, and sent to the hospital; although the situation of jails, even under the best administration, makes them most frequently liable to contagious and other diseases. At this time, too, were confined there, by order of the French consul, 106 French soldiers and sailors, beside 100 convicts, vagrants, and other criminals.

The cleanliness of the prisoner's person is likewise particularly attended to. On the first admission of a convict, he is separately lodged, washed, and cleansed, and continues in such separate lodging, till it is deemed prudent to admit him among the other prisoners.—The clothes in which he is committed are fumigated and laid by till his discharge. They regularly shift their linen, and are shaved twice a week. Previous to commencing their daily labour, they are made to wash their face and hands, and in the summer months, to bathe themselves in a large basin in the court-yard provided for the purpose. Towels are fixed in the different courts. Their hair too is cut decent and short once in a month, and for the convenience of the barber, the whole number of men is generally divided into four equal parts; so that one-fourth part have their hair cut every week.

It is the chief object of the keepers, to command as much respect as possible from the criminal, and yet without laying him under any undue fear or restraint. By these

means the convict becomes insensibly and gradually attached to him, and his mind better prepared to receive any impression he might wish to make. The result of which is, that a keeper seldom speaks to a prisoner, but what he is answered with respect and with mildness.

The male convicts are allowed, for breakfast and supper, as much as they can eat of pudding made of the meal of maize corn, called mush. At dinner they have, three days in the week, about half a pound of bread, with a pint of potatoes; on other days mush and potatoes; on Sunday, a pound of wholesome meat is distributed to each prisoner. Those among them who behave themselves well, are at times, permitted the indulgence of procuring other provisions, at their own expense, but the practice is not common. The nourishment of the women is of the same quality with that of the males, only not as considerable, from their services being less laborious. The convicts are called to their meals by the ringing of a bell.

The drink of the criminals is molasses and water; spirituous liquors are forbidden, except for medical purposes, prescribed by the attending physician; and the person who sells, or suffers them to be introduced, on any other occasion, subjects himself to a penalty of five pounds: if an officer of the prison, dismissal from office.

Whipping is now entirely unknown in the prison: the keepers are not even allowed to lay violent hands on any of the criminals. It is wonderful, that, in civilized countries, such a mode of punishment should be countenanced—one that originated among savages. To expose the bare back of a human creature to the lash of a whip, or tow-*skin*, is horrid.

The managers of the prison have so great a confidence in the efficacy of mild and gentle measures of treatment, that they will not suffer, on any account, such a constraintive measure as placing a criminal in irons; conceiving it by no means calculated to produce in the mind of the convict, the amelioration which is thought so essential for his amendment. Nor are the keepers permitted to carry sabres, pistols, or weapons of any kind, as is customary in prisons, nor even a cane, for fear that on a trifling provocation they might be induced to beat a criminal.

The keepers and turnkeys, are not similar in any respect to those in other countries; for independent of the little inclination they might have to ill treat a criminal, the strong recommendations required for their sobriety and humanity, being always necessary to the appointment of proper persons to fill those offices, still they would find the abuse almost impracticable; from the unremitted vigilance and attention of the inspectors. The appointment too of the jailer is more particularly attended to, as upon him, in a great measure, devolves a duty, which, if well executed, cannot fail to ensure a more complete success to the new mode of discipline. His salary, therefore, is fully adequate to his services, as are those of the inferior officers. The total prohibition again of all perquisites, whether arising from the purchase of favours, or the retailing of spirituous liquors, dismissal fees, and in fact extortions of any kind—the unqualified proscription of fetters, beating, and all arbitrary conduct whatever—and the end of the institution, aiming at the reformation instead of the debasement of criminals, makes the jailer's duty an humane one, and of course renders

the place an object with many worthy persons in the community; when in most parts of the world, the nature of their prison governments partakes of so much depravity, that the very existence of them depends on the exclusion of men of sensibility from those stations. The immediate administration then of the prison, being in the hands of officers of this opposite description, the amendment of the prisoner, and the example given to society, by his severe yet just and humane punishment, can be accomplished by few or perhaps no better regulations than what have been adopted.

On the first entrance of a convict, the inspectors receive from a proper officer of the court, before whom the conviction was had, a brief report of the circumstances attending his crime; particularly such as tend to palliate or aggravate it, with other information respecting his behaviour on his trial, and his general conduct previous to and after receiving the sentence of the court. This knowledge of the prisoner's character and disposition, while it affords them an opportunity of ascertaining the degree of care, which may be requisite for the annihilation of his former bad habits, is yet attended with another advantage, that it early evinces to the criminal the strictness with which he may afterward expect to be treated. He is then informed of and made fully acquainted with the rules and government of the prison, and at the same instant no pains are wanting, on the part of the inspectors, to enforce upon his mind the strength of moral obligations—the breach he has made of those obligations—the consequent injury done thereby to the society which protected him—the forfeit he has made of that protection—and the necessity

of making a compensation by his example or amendment. And so this, every encouragement is given him to perform his duty with alacrity, and to observe a decency of conduct toward his keeper and co-associates. Animated also with a promise and hope, that an enlargement before the expiration of the term he is sentenced to, will most probably follow a long and uninterrupted line of good behaviour, the prisoner easily becomes sensible of the policy of a respectful industrious deportment.

The inspectors, it ought to have been mentioned, are authorized to intercede with the executive power for the pardon of reformed convicts, and are generally able by their influence to obtain it. The right, nevertheless, they never exercise, but with extreme caution, and unless, from the repeated reports of the jailer and keepers, they are persuaded that a prisoner has uniformly demeaned himself with propriety, has repented of his past follies, and in fact that a visible change and complete amendment has taken place.

At times the inspectors, in their tour of duty, make it a point to discourse with all the criminals, one by one separately, in order to assure them of their relative duties, considered as men, moralists, and members of society. The exhortations, on these occasions, proceed from them with such philanthropic calmness, so much warmth of heart, that their appearance among the convicts never fails to cast a fresh beam of comfort on every countenance. Richard H. M****, Esq. entered while we were in the women's ward. He had the jail book in one hand, and a pencil in the other. This is customary with the inspectors on duty. Among others, a young negress accosted him on the subject of her confinement.

With simplicity was her tale delivered—with attention was it listened to. Her sentence, if I mistake not, was two years imprisonment, nine months only of which had been complied with. No exception was ever taken to her conduct since her first entrance; it had been regularly pleasing. But the demand for a discharge was certainly unreasonable, and in that light viewed by Mr. M. and all of us.—On his expostulating with her, on the impropriety of remitting so great a proportion of the sentence, she declared herself satisfied with his reasoning, and resumed her employment at the spinning-wheel with cheerfulness and activity.—Such is the result of deliberate persuasion in matters of this kind.

A criminal again, is well aware that wantonly to insult, or thwart the precepts of an inspector, would, in addition to the penalties annexed to this transgression by the rules of the house, render him despicable in the eyes of his brother convicts, a consideration of serious weight with all of them. But laying this entirely aside, we might venture to predict that nothing of the kind would probably take place. For where is the wretch so bold in iniquity, so debased and void of sensibility, who would delight in ruffling the feelings of one, whose only incentive to the task of superintendence is his disposition to soothe the unfortunate—to seek them in their misery—and pour into their souls the healing draught of consolation? Say not among criminals, or any other class of men. An experiment has been made no where except in Pennsylvania. Even under the best administrations abroad, where prisoners are carefully and well treated, they have notwithstanding been more or less influenced by a belief, that their good fortune proceeded rather from ex-

tentations, or other motives of their benefactors, than any real sympathy for their condition. That with all the humanity of their governors, they can still discover in their conduct something like an inward contempt for them. This, no doubt, will always remain a formidable bar to their amendment; and to remove it, it is barely necessary to assure these people, by actions or other means, that you attribute their situation to misfortune, to bad education, and other adventitious circumstances in life—not to any innate thirst for vice or villany. That knowing their faults and errors, you would sooner conceal them in the unfathomable depths of oblivion, than merely cover them with the slight veil of a counterfeited friendship: all which are actually enjoined on the inspectors, by the powerful dictates both of duty and inclination.

All means are used by the inspectors to promote moral and religious improvement in the prison, by the introduction of useful books amongst those who request them, and the procuring the regular performance of divine service. To assist them in the pursuit of the latter arrangement, the task is voluntarily undertaken every Sunday forenoon and afternoon, by some of the society of Friends*, or the clergy of different denominations, and sometimes by the bishop. The service consists of a sermon, and a lecture, on subjects suited to the situation of the convicts. All the convicts, and other prisoners, both male and female, are compelled to give attendance, and arrange themselves according to classes. This is the only time in the week that the different classes of prisoners have a view of each other.

(To be continued.)

* Quakers.

A GENERAL ACCOUNT OF THE NATURE OF THE SOIL
IN THE COUNTY OF DUBLIN.

[Continued from page 35.]

OWING to its contiguity to the sea, the county of Dublin abounds with shells of divers description, and these are far from possessing inactive principles as articles of manure. Their agricultural value is stamped by the proportion of carbonate of lime which they contain. According to Hatchett, shells are of two kinds, which vary very little in their designating qualities, and can only be really ascertained by processes of analization. The first he calls porcellaneous, where all the strata are closely connected with very little animal substance; to the second he gives the name of mother of pearl, where the strata are alternated with membranous layers. Now these strata are carbonate of lime; so that shells in their properties approach to the nature of lime-stone marl, which has already been described. They have sometimes been applied in a calcined state; but by the process of calcination the carbonic acid is expelled; therefore, (carbon being necessary to the *vis vite* of the vegetable kingdom,) though it has succeeded, we think they would answer the purposes of vegetation much better in that state which nature presents them to us. Shells in this country are frequently found in combination with sand. Now, in stiff clayey soils, sand acts by a fermenting process, loosening the ground so that air can be admitted; therefore the shelly particles, which are found in the sand, can more easily insinuate themselves into the small cavities formed by this operation, and consequently more readily exert their influence on the vegetable fibre, stimulating it with the nourishment which they impart.

It is evident that sandy manures should not be used in sandy soils; but in heavy soils, where its beneficial consequences are witnessed, it continues for a long time effective. The best manure of this kind is found at Howth, Booterstown, Skerries, and on the Dodder banks near Templeogue.

For farming, as well as for horticultural purposes, the sea-sand is in general better than that produced from fresh water rivers; not only because it possesses more shelly particles, but also because it holds a certain quantity of marine matter. It has also another great advantage, viz: that whilst other sands are injurious to sandy soils, this is of material service, as by it a better sand is brought to a worse. Sea-sand has not been long in general use as an article of manure. The inhabitants of Rush, Skerries, Balraddery, and Gormanstown, find it better adapted to their soils than marl. Its effects in destroying grubs is too well known to gardeners to require a physical elucidation here; the cause of this effect is too easily discovered, by comparing it with common fresh water sand, to warrant farther explication in this place. Where sea-sand would be too expensive the fresh water sand must of necessity be used, indeed in some places Nature seems as if she had given peculiar gravels to peculiar soils; at Garristown for instance, is a yellow sand which is attracted by the magnet, therefore affording good reason to suppose that it contains metallic particles, and does not effervesce with acids.

(To be continued.)

MONTHLY NOTICES

OF ARTS, MANUFACTURES, AND PRACTICAL SCIENCE.

Torpedoes.—In our last Number, page 27, we had occasion to notice the American invention of Torpedoes.

One of these instruments was picked up by the *Victorious*, 74, Captain Talbot, at the same place, and is now on board that ship. It is a case, containing about six barrels of gunpowder, to which a lock is affixed; and attached to the lock is a line, reaching to the person or boat that has the execution of the design. It is next extended to a stage of planks, at each end of which are about fifty fathoms of small line, with a buoy at each end. The machine thus put together, and let into the water, the combustible case sinking about twelve feet, and being kept at that depth from the surface of the stage, it has many chances of success in close anchorages; the buoys being extended by the line the distance 100 fathoms, will most probably, one or the other of them, convey the line, by the help of the tide, across the cable of any ship at anchor, which, the moment it touches, will cause the machine to swing round to the side or the bottom of the ship; and the person using it, finding by the line that it has been stopped, judges that it has reached the intended object, pulls the trigger of the lock by the string, and the explosion takes place. Should it thus situated not blow the ship up, it must start a butt end of one of her planks; then, from the sudden rush of water, which no efforts of the crew could possibly subdue, she would inevitably founder. One reason, it is considered, why it fortunately did not succeed upon the *Plantagenet*, was, it was the first experiment of its humane projector, a Mr. E. Mox, of the American navy. Our blockading ships on the coast, have kept the most sharp look out in their guard boats since this infernal attempt was made.

Extraordinary Wheat.—In a field of white wheat, sown in October last, upon clover stubble, belonging to Mrs. Snowden, of Monk-seaton, near North Shields, the straw in many places stood six feet and a half high, including the ears, which measured upwards of six inches long. A foot-path lying through this field, some hundreds of heads were cut off, and carried away as curiosities: among these was an ear seven inches long, which produced 105 grains.

Extraordinary Onion.—An onion was pulled this season by Mr. Graham, of Maryport, measuring 16½ inches in circumference, and weighing 20 ounces.

Prevention of Small Pox.—A bill has been introduced into the House of Lords, and deferred till the next session, the object of which is to prevent the spreading of the infection of the small pox. The following is a summary of its provisions—that notice be given of inoculation by the practitioner; and also by the parents of children, &c.—that no person practise inoculation for small pox without obtaining printed forms, &c. from his Majesty's colleges of physicians or surgeons, &c.—such printed forms to be returned, with particulars, to college of physicians, &c.—that no practitioners give certificate when infection has ceased;—that persons be not exposed under inoculation;—that persons attacked with natural small pox be received into houses appropriated for cure thereof, &c.—and that no church-warden, overseer, &c. of poor, order any person receiving parish relief to be inoculated with small pox; nor medical person to act under such order.

Increase of Manufacture.—The quantity of cloth manufactured in the West Riding of Yorkshire, in the last year exceeds that manufactured in the preceding year 815,535 yards.

The quantity milled in the year	Yards.
ending the 25th March 1813,	
was	14,251,098
The quantity milled in the year	
ending the 25th March 1810,	
was	15,066,698

Which is 6,433,919 yards more than was milled on an average of five years, ending 5th April, 1789.

And it may be observed, that since the commencement of the latter period, viz. the French Revolution, the quantity of cloth milled, taken on averages, is nearly doubled.

The official value of Woollen	
Manufacture exported in	
1811, was	£4,376,397
1812, was	5,084,991
Being an increase of	768,494

The woollen manufactures in the West of England, viz. Gloucestershire, Wiltshire, Somersetshire, and the adjacent, have been fully employed during the whole of last winter.

Literature, Science and the Fine Arts.

CRITICAL CATALOGUE OF NEW BOOKS;

WITH CHARACTERISTIC EXTRACTS.

A Narrative of the Campaigns in Russia, during the Year 1812.
By Sir ROBERT KER PORTER.
4to. pp. 282.

THE above unostentatious title comprehends events of such importance in the history of mankind as ages may not again produce. The horrors of every description which occurred between the months of June 1812 and March 1813, were more revolting to humanity than any the consequence of the French Revolution.

The narrative commences with a rapid view of the state of the continent after the peace of Tilsit, which the Emperor Alexander soon perceived by no means secured him from the further ambitious projects of Buonaparté; and hence he determined to adopt those measures which at length induced the latter to attempt the subjugation of Russia by force.

"Napoleon," says Sir Robert, "left Paris in May, and found himself at the head of his grand army on the 16th of June. A fiercer or more complete force never was marshalled by the destructive abilities of man. It possessed the *élite* not only of the French nation, but that of all her confederates; and, to give efficiency to so formidable a strength, was commanded by the most celebrated captain of the age."

Sir Robert subsequently shews the force of the two hostile armies; and then proceeds to give the operations as they occurred across the whole line of the invaded territory. Considering his relations with Russia, where he has had the singularly good fortune to wed a princess, and his military know-

ledge, there is every reason to suppose his information is derived from authentic sources. We shall leave the minor events to the perusal of our readers in the work before us, and dwell only on those scenes of the sublimest horror, and which are calculated to shew *invasion* in its true colours. From the date of the battle of Smolensk, which was contended with all the ferocity of the oppressor on one side, and all the vigour of a just cause on the other, the Russians foresaw the consequences of defeat, and they burnt the city when they could no longer defend it:

"No pen can describe the rage of Napoleon on beholding the spectacle which presented itself. The spacious streets were blocked up with ruined and falling houses, and magnificent buildings were blazing in every direction, threatening the total consumption of those that remained yet uninjured. To preserve some means of quartering his troops, the French leader immediately ordered every exertion to stop the progress of the flames. The men employed in this service gave themselves little trouble in their duty; and aware that the extent of the mischief already done would render their disobedience less observed, instead of attempting to extinguish the fires by which they were surrounded, they spread themselves all over the city, wherever the burning destruction had not seized; and, entering the houses and the churches, pillaged whatever valuables they found, and murdered, with the most unfeeling of cruelties, all whom accident or attachment to their native city had left in their passage."

It was conduct like this which riveted the hatred of the Russians, and induced Rastapchin to affix the following letter to a gate opposite to his palace.

"For eight years, I found my pleasure in embellishing this country retreat. I lived here in perfect happiness within the bosom of my family, and those around me largely partook of my felicity. But you approach! and the peasantry of this domain, to the number of one thousand seven hundred and twenty human beings, fly far away, and I put the fire to my house! We abandon all, we consume all, that neither ourselves nor our habitations may be polluted with your presence. Frenchmen, I left to your avidity two of my houses in Moscow, full of furniture and valuables to the amount of half-a-million of roubles. Here you will find nothing but ashes."

Those who admire the details of battles most ably related will find ample funds in this narrative; but it is impossible not to feel shocked at the dreadful waste of life at that of Borodino.

"The rage of battle at this crisis was not to be described. The thunder of a thousand pieces of artillery was answered by an equal number on the part of the Russians. A veil of smoke shut out the combatants from the sun, and left them no other light to pursue their work of death, than the flashes of the musketry which blazed in every direction. The ranks of forty thousand dragoons met each other, and elated in the horrid gloom, and the brilliant points of countless bayonets, burning through the rolling vapour, strewed the earth with heaps of slain."—"Thus closed that memorable day, and with it terminated the lives of eighty thousand human beings."

The consequences of this battle were dreadful in every point of view; the Russians claimed the hard fought victory, but were too much exhausted to save Moscow by another action—that too was burnt.

"On the 16th September, at mid-day, the enemy appeared before the walls of Moscow. His advanced guard, under the command of Murat and Beauharnois, entered the gates with all the pomp and pride of conquest. The troops moved towards the Kremlin. A part of the self-devoted citizens had taken refuge there; and, closing the gates, desperately attempted its defence by a discharge of their muskets. Feeble were barriers of stone and iron against a host: the gates were instantly forced, and the brave victims massacred upon the floors of their ancient fortress."

This act had just been completed, when the signals for destruction were given, and Moscow appeared in flames throughout each quarter. Sir Robert informs his readers, that Buonaparte supposed he should be received in a city so circumstanced in a triumphant manner; he, therefore, waited with impatience for the appearance of the municipal officers of the place bearing their keys—they came not—he dispatched a Polish general to remind them of their new duties—the general soon returned to inform his master not a *legal authority* was to be found; that Moscow was a desert, and would soon be a heap of ruins.—Still hoping for a relaxation in the minds of the stern Moscovites, he passed the night at the Petrosky palace, about a mile from the barrier of St. Petersburg, but was compelled to enter the city the following day in sullen silence, without even the discharge of a cannon or the sound of a drum. He proceeded to the Kremlin. At this critical moment a fire broke out close to the palace he occupied; a search for the perpetrators was immediately made, and an hundred persons apprehended: those were interrogated as to who had prompted them; they were promised life and pardon if they would confess, the whole body observed a stern silence, and they were ordered to be shot.

During the time this emperor remained in Moscow, the measures of the general-in-chief, Kutosoff, were gradually developed, and the French were so completely surrounded by the judicious dispositions of the various Russian armies, that they found nothing was left for them short of a desperate retreat by the desolate route they had advanced. Our readers are well informed of the circumstances of misery and destruction attending the

Such is the general outline of this Narrative: the filling up consists of scenes that are sufficient to harrow the soul—the subject will, it is hoped, never again meet with a parallel.

The twenty-first edition of Dr. BUCHAN'S Domestic Medicine; with considerable additions and improvements. By THOMAS MORRISON, Surgeon.—R. CONOLLY. Price 12s.

THIS valuable book has now stood the test of time and experience, whatever benefit it may have conferred on society, the medical tribe are certainly not much obliged to its author, for disclosing the secrets of their practice, and enabling mankind to become their own physicians.—Mr. Morrison appears to have executed his editorial task with fidelity, and much ability—and, considering his profession, like Buchan, is entitled to no inconsiderable portion of praise, for his disinterestedness.

The improvements in this edition render it of that value, no family ought to be without a copy. The principal are extracts from the Doctor's advice to mothers—*Treatise on Sea-Bathing*—an account of the Watering Places in the vicinity of Dublin—*Essay on the Mineral Waters of Ireland*, with an analysis of their different properties. The Cow-Pock inoculation is differently treated on.—There is added an exclusive article on the recovery of drowned persons—another on the Hernia—a valuable essay on Medical electricity. And, to complete the whole—a Life of Dr. Buchan.

Such are the improvements in this edition; we have enumerated them, but forbear to extract. As a work of this nature scarcely admits those quotations which form the very life and spirit of a review. They would

be uninteresting to most of our readers, except medical men, and persons afflicted with particular complaints. The remarks of the Doctor on places of public entertainment, however, form an exception, and from their general importance, we venture to transcribe them.

"I believe I need not assure the reader of what he will perceive in almost every page of this book, that I am far from being an enemy to agreeable and innocent recreations. But some of our amusements are attended with so much injury to the health of thousands, that it would be carrying indulgence too far to pass them by unnoticed.

"Public gardens, those places of general resort in the summer season, are as dangerous as they are inviting. Their agreeable coolness at the close of a hot day, the gaiety of the company, the charms of the music, and the variety of the other decorations, concur to render such scenes peculiarly delightful, and to make age as well as youth forget the harmful effects of evening dews, and of the night air. In the mean time, perspiration is checked, and disease is inhaled at almost every breath. The dampness is in proportion to the heat that preceded it, and is farther increased by the exhalations from the water, which always forms one of the ornaments or boundaries of the beautiful landscape. Ah! fly from the bewitching spot at an early hour; and think, that even the verdure you tread upon, so soft to the foot, and the plants, and flowers, so pleasant to the sight and smell, begin soon after sunset, to emit a sort of volatile poison, and to contaminate the air around you. A little brandy, or brandy and water, while there, is the best preservative; but nothing can save you if you stay too long. Again, then, let me urge you to retire from these soon; and after returning home, some warm and mild liquid, as going to bed, will tend to restore insensible perspiration, and to prevent the attacks of a cold, or of a fever.

"But, how am I to address myself in a strain of admonition to the frequenters of our theatres, which are often the source of rational pleasure, and where even at my own advanced period of life, I can hardly refrain from going, when the favorites of the tragic or of the comic muse exert their fascinating powers? it would be writing contrary to the impulses

of my own heart, were I to use any dissuaves against such exquisite gratifications. Yet I hope I may suggest some useful hints to guard against disagreeable consequences.

"In the relaxing atmosphere of a theatre, heated by the number of lights, and by the breath and effluvia of so many persons as are crowded there together, cold, weak drink, however grateful to the taste, is extremely dangerous. Thirst may be allayed by sucking an orange or lemon, and other bad effects may be obviated by a little brandy or rum, though these spirits, if used too freely, would rather invite than avert the apprehended evil.

"After the entertainment, the greatest danger attends the sudden transition from heat to cold. Additional covering should always be prepared to put on, at going

out of a theatre: a handkerchief or muff should be applied to the nose and mouth; and the same precautions used, after getting home, as I have directed in the former case.

"As to the votaries of silly fashion, who rush to Italian operas, and the like unnatural puppet-show performances, they scarcely appear worthy of either notice or advice. It is not likely that any argument would make much impression upon people who absurdly sacrifice health and life to the attainments of false taste;—who affect to admire the most extravagant nonsense;—who, in the words of the elegant *Armstrong*,

"With loudest peals,"

"Applaud the fool that highest lifts his heels,

"And with insipid show of rapture die,

"Of idiot notes impudently long."

DRUIDICAL, SYMBOLICAL ALPHABETS:—ON THE ORIGIN OF WRITING, &c.

The Druids certainly were familiar with the trees of the forest, and well aware of the vegetable riches of Britain. The majestic oak, is said to have been their residence; so it was, on solemn occasions; the flexible willow appears to have furnished their every day dwellings; and no doubt, the other trees, each for its respective use, were employed by them, in proportion to their strength and fitness. This is an obvious application; but, perhaps, it never has occurred to the reader that the trees furnished to our Druids the letters of their learning. On this was, in fact, founded a branch of their mysteries; one of their arts of secret science.

Trees were emblematical:—For instance; the *Birch* was an emblem of readiness or complacency, in doing a kind act. If a young woman accepted the addresses of her lover, it was encouragement enough to him if she gave him the *birchen branch*; and if this were formed into a crown, the declaration was explicit of kindness on her

part. On the contrary, if she gave him the *Collen*, or *hazel*, the symbol was fatal to his hopes; and was understood without the use of language. Or rather, there was a covert language employed; as the term *Coll* included two meanings, and signified at the same time the wood *hazel*, and the word *loss*, or perhaps *failure*. We have, at this day, phrases among ourselves which are remains of this ancient appropriation, though employed without the smallest consciousness of their origin. When a bachelor has seen his beloved carried off by a more fortunate suitor,—such a one is said to *wear the willow*: and when a husband has reason to expect a long absence on the part of his wife, he is jocularly allowed to *hang out the noom*. Other instances may occur to the reader: as they differ in different countries.

We will now present this symbolical alphabet to the reader's inspection; it exists in this country, in the Irish order of the letters, and in Wales, in the order of the Roman alphabet. The first exam-

ple is obtained from O'Flaherty, the second was communicated to Mr. Davies* by Mr. Owen.

IRISH SYMBOLS.

Beith	The Birch
Luis	The Quicken tree
Nion	The Ash
Fearn	The Alder
Sail	The Willow
H Uath	The Hawthorn
Duir	The Oak
Tinne	
Coll	The Hazel
Mein	The Vine
Gort	The Ivy
Pethhoc	
Ruis	The Elder tree

VOWELS.

A ilm	The Fir
O nn	The Furze
E adha	The Aspen
I dho	The Yew

The capitals separated shew the power of the letters.

The same, reduced to the order of the Roman Alphabet, with the addition of the British Names.

British Names.	Irish Ns.	Trees.
A	Ailm	The Fir
B	Beith	The Birch
C	Coll	The Hazel
D	Duir	The Oak
E	Endha	The Aspen
F	Fearn	The Alder
G	Gort	The Ivy
I	Idho	The Yew
L	Luis	The Quicken tree
M	Mein	The Vine
N	Nion	The Ash
O	Onn	The Furze
P	Pethhoc	
R	Ruis	The Elder
S	Sail	The Willow
T	Tinne	
U	Ur	The Heath

It is perfectly evident, that when a *fixed idea* was connected with any symbol, intelligence of the most secret kind might be conveyed by the conveyance of that symbol: neither Cesar, nor any of his adherents, could prevent that from being understood; and moreover,

* From which gentleman's "Celtic Researches," much of this article is abstracted.

when an order of terms was also fixed (trees in this instance) the information was shortened by accepting the first radical of the name as a substitute for the whole.

By this, *Beith*, was contracted to *B*; and *Luis*, to *L*: also *Nion*, to *N*, &c. Another step brings us to an alphabet: a twig of Birch is *B*, bend this twig into a *fixed shape*,—it will always suggest the vocal power of *B*:—bend a twig of the quicken tree into the *fixed* form *L*, it will always recel to the eye, and thereby to the mind, the vocal power of *L*:—bend a twig of ash into the *fixed* form *N*:—it speaks for itself. Now there is nothing so intricate in the form of *B*, or *L*, or *N*, that a twig of any tree will not take this form: and no doubt, but those who practised this art, adopted the shape of the letter to the degree of pliancy in the twig. When the twigs themselves were not at hand, a delineation of them would answer every purpose: and thus we have an alphabet and alphabetical writing.

There seems to be no occasion to enlarge on this: its extreme simplicity is its best recommendation as an hypothesis: the testimony of the most highly esteemed antiquaries justify our acceptance of it; and the actual existence of the scheme in antient descriptions, all conspire to warrant the truth of a system by which the learning of the initiated was at the same time capable of publicity and secrecy.

We may now believe, that the learning of the Druids was really much more extensive than Cesar had any suspicion of; and to say truth, than later ages, among ourselves, had any suspicion of, till the labours of the ingenious authors already alluded to, furnished the materials, on which this slight article is founded.

But possibly, the notion of this art of secret writing, that is to say by symbols, was not confined to these antient *literati*, it might be used, though in other forms, among other nations. The thought is plausible, because it really does exist to this day, in countries which certainly have now no reference to Druid learning, nor the smallest knowledge that ever such sages lived. Under a different shape it answers the same purposes, and is equally private and popular.

Our ideas of a Druid raise up the spectre of a venerable sage, in long apparel, bending beneath the weight of years, and therefore supported on a staff of his sacred tree:—

Loose his beard; and hoary hair,
Streams like a Comet to the troubled air:—
—but we venture to assume that
Druids were, or had been, young;
and that Druidesses, too, were

sometime sprightly. Ah, not by the grave and the sententious were letters first invented; not by the philosopher, but by the friend;—love triumphed over obstacles,—first, from the obduracy of the fair;—secondly, from the perverseness of parental misgivings; and thirdly—from all the difficulties of time and place,—of distance, exile, and—vigilance.

Heaven first taught letters for some
wretch's aid,
Some banish'd lover, or some captive
maid;
They live, they speak, they breathe what
love inspires,
Warm from the soul, and faithful to its
fires;
The virgin's wish, without her fears, im-
part,
Excuse the blush, and pour out all the
heart;
Speed the soft intercourse from soul to
soul,
And wait a sigh from Indus to the pole.

MEDICAL REFORM.

An admirable paper on the present state of the profession of medicine is contained in the last number of the *Medical and Physical Journal*, in a memoir on *MEDICAL REFORM*. We lament our inability to give it entire, but must refer our readers to the *Journal* itself, for much curious and valuable information; at the same time the following extract, containing a summary of the distribution of the profession, merits notice:

Doctors of Physic of Oxford and Cambridge.—To neither of these Universities does any efficient school of Physic belong. They confer medical degrees, however; but rather as being arrived at in the regular course of academic discipline, and attained by a certain observance of acts and terms, than as merited by any full or perfect

qualifications in the art of curing diseases: yet these graduates possess privileges such as no other medical men enjoy, and are entitled to demand admission as fellows of the London College of Physicians, without undergoing the scrutiny of an examination, to which all other candidates are subjected.

Doctors of Physic of Edinburgh. A University which furnishes a complete course of medical instruction, and whose degree is only obtained by resident study and examination.

Doctors of Physic of Glasgow.—Here too, a complete school of physic is established; and similar qualifications required for obtaining a degree, as are insisted on at Edinburgh.

Doctors of Physic of Aberdeen

and *St. Andrew's*.—These Universities possess no competent schools of physic. Their degree is obtained without either resident study or examination, and on the sole ground of private certificates. The means by which these certificates are procured, the extent to which the system has arrived, and the gross venality and shameless corruption which characterise it, shall be subject to further discussion by and by.

Doctors of Physic of Dublin.—This University, like those of Oxford and Cambridge, grants degrees in physic, considered rather as a branch of liberal science, than as a practical art. They originated at a time when no complete school of physic belonged to it; they are issued on the foundation of the University, and are rather to be received as testimonies of regular literary education, than of medical attainments.

Doctors of Physic of Foreign Universities.

Surgeons of each of the Royal Colleges of England, Ireland and Scotland;—all differently circumstanced with respect to their connection with pharmacy, and the privilege of combining it with their other pursuits.

The Scottish Surgeons are examined in pharmacy, and are even required to produce, on examination, specimen of compound medicines prepared by themselves, as proofs of their practical knowledge of this department.

The English Surgeons are allowed to combine pharmacy with their more appropriate pursuits; but they are not obliged to prove before the college their pharmaceutical attainments.

The Irish Surgeons are altogether prohibited from combining pharmacy with their other practise,

the penalty of expulsion from their college being attached to the offence.

The Apothecaries of each Kingdom;—an appendage to the profession, whose original destination was to dispense the prescriptions of the physician, for which a pharmaceutical education abundantly qualified them, but by no means to practise either in physic and surgery, for which they were utterly unprepared, unless it be alleged that these branches are capable of being intuitively acquired, and without opportunities either for study or observation. They have, however, notwithstanding the disadvantages of defective education, been of late years brought forward by the public as general practitioners: and a due attention to this fact, will be found to afford some views of the medical profession which are in direct opposition to the opinions most generally received. The department of pharmacy has never, that I know of, been regularly legitimated in Scotland, having never grown into so much importance there as to have acquired a separate constitution.—But in England and Ireland pharmacy has been placed under the superintendence of distinct corporations, and principally by reason of the importance attached to this body in consequence of their having insensibly become elevated to the rank of medical practitioners. It does not appear, however, that their chartered rights extend beyond the department of pharmacy, nor have they heretofore so far presumed on their popularity, as to make any attempts at legalising their medical or surgical practise. An endeavour of this kind, however, seems to form a very prominent feature of their intended bill: and it is evident that they

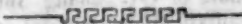
now entertain very sanguine hopes of being able, by making common cause with the surgeon-apothecaries, to establish themselves in the possession of certain legal rights which neither physic nor surgery have ever enjoyed.

The remaining medical practitioners may be disposed of by a brief notice; they are

The *Apothecaries*—not attached to any corporation, but nevertheless largely engaged in the practice both of physic and surgery.

The *Druggists*—dispensing medicines, and also prescribing; and, finally,

The *Grocers*—first commencing by selling drugs by retail, next dispensing prescriptions, then practising the minor operations of surgery, and also prescribing; and, finally, retiring from business with an independence acquired in the course of a very few years, and not unfrequently aspiring to the elevation of a medical degree.



VOCAL AND INSTRUMENTAL MUSIC OF MERIT.

The Russian Sacrifice; or, burning of Moscow—A grand Melo. Drama, performed at the Theatre. Royal, Dublin, written by H. B. CODE, Esq. the Music by Sir J. STEVENSON, Mus. Doc. price 16s. 3d.

This is undoubtedly the best production we have seen of Sir John's, and hope it will meet with the encouragement it deserves. In the Overture he has displayed considerable judgment and originality, which clearly proves to us, had he studied instrumental writing, he would have been equally great in that as he is in vocal music.

The opening fisherman's glee, "*How pleasant is the fisherman's life,*" is one of his happiest productions. Altho' he has favoured the public with three glees in the style of this, yet we do not perceive the smallest similitude in the airs. The words, "*Our nets to the deep we throw,*" and, "*Then homeward over the friendly wave,*" are particularly effective.

"*Fear not my Love,*" a Ballad.—The commencement of this song pleases us less than any in the

entire piece, but the conclusion amply compensates for its deficiency.

"*Grand March and Chorus.*"—The introductory March, or Symphony to this Chorus is a delightful morceau, and truly characteristic of Russian Music.

"*Hail Almighty Power.*"—This Chorus is a very masterly production; yet we do not think the Music well adapted to the words, particularly the first line, and the repetition of the word "*hear,*" sung by the treble, and answered by the contra alto.

"*Smack'em & whack'em;*" a comic Song, adapted to the celebrated Irish air of *Laneulee*.—We mention this Song merely to notice the original symphony.

"*Wake to airy Measures light Around;*" in three parts.—This style of composition Sir John is particularly happy in, the melody is pleasing, and well adapted to the words; it forms a Canon in unison—the accompaniment is well conceived.

"*Sweetly sound the trembling Lyre*" a Quartet.—This forms a

most pleasing combination of harmony. The words, "*When the Hero's martial fire melts to music, don't away*"—are beautifully expressed; we should judge, Sir John intended the accompaniment for the Harp, from the manner in which it is arranged.

"*Return sweet Peace,*" a Duet.—The style of this is not original, but pleasing. The words *Sweet Peace* are well expressed, but we should have preferred a different accompaniment. In the first bar of the last line, page 52, where the voices join, the succession of octaves are not required, nor are they grateful to the ear. This of course is an oversight.

"*Little Robin sings Sweet,*" a Ballad.—The subject is original and pleasing, and the simplicity in which it is worked, proves the taste of the composer. This we recommend to all lovers of this kind of composition.

"*Echo,*" a Bravura Song.—This song deserves our warmest praise, not only from its originality, but its excellent Trumpet accompaniment.

"*Hush the Foe is near,*" a Grand Chorus.—The words of this Chorus are well adapted to shew the powers of the composer.

Hush'd again is every sound,
Night and silence reigns around;

have a most harmonious effect, in consequence of the modulation into the fourth of the key. The aggregate is exceedingly good.

"*Remember the Moment,*" a Canonet, composed by T. Cooke, 2s. 6d.

This style of composition is particularly interesting: we congratulate Mr. T. Cooke on his selection of the words which he has done ample justice to; the introduction of the enharmonic, in page 5, has a most striking effect at the

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The first movement to this as an introduction to the Waltz, is very expressive, and the Waltz itself free from the sameness and vulgarity which was too rapidly stealing into airs of this description.

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Miscellanea.

FRENCH COURT CALENDAR.

THE incessant recurrence of the new French titles in all the reports from France, makes it essential to the readers of periodical works, to have the names as well as titles. To assist our readers, we give the following list:—

King of Naples—Marshal Murat, Prince Joachim Napoleon.

Queen of Naples—Caroline Buonaparte.

King of Spain—Prince Joseph Napoleon.

King of Westphalia—Prince Jerome Napoleon.

Viceroy of Italy—Prince Eugene Beauharnois (4th corps).

Princess Borghese—Paulina Buonaparte.
Princess of Baden—Stephanie de la Pagerie.

Grand Duchess of Florence—Eliza Buonaparte.

Grand Duke of Berg—Prince Charles Louis Napoleon.

Grand Duke of Warsaw—Frederick Augustus IV. King and Elector of Saxony.

Archbishop of Lyons—Cardinal Fesché.

Prince of Neuchâtel—Marshal Berthier, Vice-constable of France.

Prince of Essling—Marshal Masséna.

Prince of Benevento—Talleyrand, Vice Arch-chancellor.

Prince of Eckmühl—Marshal Davoust.

* Duke of Arbantes—Marshal Junot.

Duke of Albufera—Count Suchet.

Duke of Auerstadt—Marshal Davoust.

Duke of Bassano—Maret, Sec. of State.

Duke of Belluno—Marshal Victor.

Duke of Cadore—Champagny, Minister of Foreign Affairs.

Duke of Castiglione—Marshal Angereau.

Duke of Cornegliano—Marshal Moneys.

Duke of Dalmatia—Marshal Soult.

Duke of Dantzic—Marshal Lefebvre.

Duke of Elchingen—Marshal Ney.

Grand Duke of Florence—General Bacciochi.

* Duke of Frioli—Marshal Duroc, Grand Marshal of the Palace.

* Duke of Montebello—Marshal Lasnes, Killed at Wagram.

* Duke of Istria—Marshal Bessières, Commander of the Imperial Guards.

Duke of Otranto—Fouche, Governor of Rome.

Duke of Padua—General Arigis.

Duke of Parma—Cambacères, Arch-Chancellor.

Duke of Piacenza—Marshal Le Brun, Prince Arch-Treasurer.

Duke of Ragusa—Marshal Marmont.

Duke of Reggio—Marshal Oudinot.

Duke of Rovigo—General Savary, Minister of Police.

Duke of Tarento—Marshal Mac Donald.

Duke of Treviso—Marshal Mortier.

Duke of Valmy—Marshal Kellerman.

Duke of Vicenza—General Caulincourt, Grand Chamberlain, and Master of Saxony.

Ex-Marshal Brune (supposed to be murdered).

Ex-Marshal Jourdan.

Marshal Perignon.

Marshal Serrurier.

The following Generals of Division are also Barons of the Empire, viz.

Borde Sault

Rajol

Ruard

Subervie

Valtier and

Devaux.

The following Generals of Division are also Counts of the Empire, viz.

Andreossi.

Baraguay de Hilliers.

Belliard.

Bruyeres.

Gouvion St. Cyr.

Defrance.

Du Tailles, Governor of Warsaw.

St. Germain.

Ornaud.

Rapp, Governor of Dantzic, and First

Aide-de-Camp to the Emperor.

Regnier.

Sebastiani.

Vaudamme, Commandant of Boulogne.

Linois, Vice-admiral.

Grouchy.

Hogendorp, Governor of Hamburg.

Hulin, Governor of Paris.

Loison, Governor of the Imperial Palace.

Mauberg.

Montbrun.

* Morand.

Nansouty.

* Dead.

* Dead.

SIGNS OF CHANGES OF WEATHER.

IT is difficult to explain clearly, and with precision, how modifications in the atmosphere, and vapours, and exhalations affect animals, and produce changes in their bodies, since we are not acquainted with the curious organization of their most delicate parts; but we can observe, and perceive the progress and general consequences of these phenomena, as well as of those by which they are produced.

The following are the common and familiar signs exhibited by animals which indicate changes of the weather, and which are not so much taken from the agricultural poet who first collected them, as from common observation.

1. When the bats remain longer than usual abroad from their holes, fly about in great numbers and to a greater distance than common, it is a sign that the following day will be warm and serene; but if they enter the houses, and send forth loud and repeated cries, rain may be expected to follow.

2. If the owl is heard to scream during bad weather, it announces that it will become fine.

3. The croaking of crows in the morning indicates fine weather.

4. When the raven croaks three or four times, extending his wings and shaking the leaves, it is a sign of serene weather.

5. It is an indication of rain and stormy weather when ducks and geese fly backwards and forwards; when they plunge frequently into the water, or begin to send forth cries and to fly about.

6. If the bees do not remove to a great distance from their hives, it announces rain; if they return to their hives before the usual time, it may be concluded that the rain will soon fall.

7. If pigeons return slowly to

the pigeon-house, it indicates that the succeeding day will be rainy.

8. It is a sign of rain and wind when the sparrows chirp a great deal and make a noise to each other to assemble.

9. When fowls and chickens roll in the sand more than usual, it announces rain; the case is the same when the cocks crow in the evening or at other uncommon hours.

10. Peacocks, which cry during the night, have a presentation of rain.

11. It is believed to be a sign of bad weather, when the swallows fly in such a manner as to brush the surface of the water, and to touch it frequently with their wings and breast.

12. The weather is about to become cloudy and to change for the worse, when the flies sting and become more troublesome than usual.

13. When the gnats collect themselves before the setting of the sun, and form a sort of vortex in the shape of a column, it announces fine weather.

14. When sea fowl and other aquatic birds retire to the shore or marshes, it indicates a change of weather and a sudden storm.

15. If the cranes fly exceedingly high, in silence and ranged in good order, it is a sign of approaching fine weather; but if they fly in disorder and immediately return with cries, it announces wind.

16. When the porpoises sport and take frequent leaps, the sea being tranquil and calm, it denotes that the wind will blow from that quarter from which they proceed.

17. If the frogs croak more than usual; if the toads issue from their holes in the evening in great numbers; if the earth-worms come forth from the earth, and if the ants remove their eggs from the small hills; if the moles throw up the

earth more than common; if the asses frequently shake and agitate their ears; if the hogs shake and spoil the stalks of corn; if the bats send forth cries and fly into the houses; if the dogs roll on the ground and scratch up the earth with their fore-feet; if the cows look towards the heavens and turn up their nostrils as if catching some smell; if the oxen lick their fore-feet; and if oxen and dogs lie on their right side, all these are signs which announce rain.

18. The case is the same when animals crowd together.

19. When goats and sheep are more obstinate and more desirous to crop their pastures, and seem to quit them with reluctance, and when birds return slowly to their nests, rain may soon be expected.

OTHER SIGNS WHICH ANNOUNCE CHANGES.

1. If the flame of a lamp crackles or flares, it indicates rainy weather.

2. The case is the same when the soot detaches itself from the chimney and falls down.

3. It is a sign of rain when the soot collected around pots or kettles takes fire in the form of small points like grains of millet; because this phenomenon denotes that the air is cold and moist.

4. If the goats seems hotter than usual, or if the flame is more agitated, though the weather be calm at the time, it indicates wind.

5. When the flame burns steadily, and proceeds straight upwards, it is a sign of fine weather.

6. If the sound of bells is heard at a great distance, it is a sign of wind or of a change of weather.

7. The hollow sound of forests, the murmuring noise of the waves of the sea, their foaming, and green and black colour, announce a storm.

8. When spiders' webs and the leaves of trees are agitated without any sensible wind, it is a sign of

wind and perhaps rain; because it denotes that strong exhalations rise from the earth.

9. These signs are less equivocal when the dry leaves and chaff are agitated in a vortex and raised into the air.

10. A frequent change of wind, accompanied with an agitation of the clouds, denotes a sudden storm.

11. A want, or too great a quantity of dew, being a mark of strong evaporation, announces rain; the case is the same with thick, white, hoar frost, which is only dew congealed.

12. The wind which begins to blow in the day time, are much stronger, and endure longer than those which begin to blow in the night.

13. Whatever kind of weather takes place in the night, it is not in general of very long duration; and, for the most part, wind is more uncommon in the night than in the day time. Fine weather in the night, with scattered clouds, does not last.

14. A Venetian proverb says, that a sudden storm from the north does not last three days.

15. The hoar frost, which is first occasioned by the east wind; indicates that the cold will continue a long time, as was the case in 1770.

16. If it thunders in the month of December, moderate and fine weather will probably follow.

17. If it thunders at intervals in the spring time before the trees have acquired leaves, cold weather is still to be expected.

18. If the wind does not change, the weather will remain the same.

In regard to the general qualities of the seasons and their influence, attention may be paid to the following signs:

If the earth and air abound with insects, worms, frogs, &c.; if the walnut-tree has more leaves than fruit; if there are large quantities

1813.]

[Miscellanea.

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of beans, fruit, and fish; if the spring and summer are too damp; if hoar frost, frogs, and dew, come on at times when they are not generally seen, the year will be barren: the opposite signs announce fertility and abundance.

Animals seem also to foresee and prognosticate fertility or barrenness. It is said, that when the birds flock together, quit the woods and islands, and retire to the fields; villages, and towns, it is a sign that the year will be barren.

A great quantity of snow in winter promises a fertile year; but abundant rains give reason to apprehend that the year will be barren. A winter, during which a great deal of rain and snow falls, announces a very warm summer. It is generally believed, but perhaps without foundation, that thunder and storms in winter prognosticate abundance. When the spring is rainy, it produces a plentiful crop of hay and of useless herbs; but at the same time a scarcity and dearth of grain. If it be warm, there will be much fruit; but the fruits will be almost all spoiled. If it is cold and dry, there will be little fruit or grapes, and silk-worms will not

thrive. If it is only dry, fruit will be scarce, but it will be good. In the last place, if it is cold, they will be late in coming to maturity. If the spring and summer are both damp, or even both dry, a scarcity of provisions is to be apprehended. If the summer is dry, diseases will prevail; but they will be more numerous if it is warm. If it is moderately cold, the corn will be late, and the season will occasion few diseases.

A fine autumn announces a winter, during which winds will predominate: if it is damp and rainy, it spoils the grapes, injures the sown fields, and threatens a dearth. If it be too cold or too warm, it produces many maladies. A long severity of the seasons, either by winds, drought, dampness, heat or cold, becomes exceedingly destructive to plants and animals. In general there is a compensation for drought between one season and another. A damp spring or summer is commonly followed by a fine autumn. If the winter is rainy the spring will be dry; and if the former be dry, the latter will be damp. When the autumn is fine, the spring will be rainy.

To the Editor of the Monthly Museum.

SIR—I beg leave to propose to the public (and particularly to your intelligent agricultural correspondents) the following question founded on actual and experimental fact:

How does it happen that corn, of every description, degenerates by repeatedly being sowed in the same soil, or perhaps in the same district (notwithstanding the exertion of the farmer's skill in manuring, &c.) or that, that seed which produced a bad crop in Ireland, if sowed in England will yield abundantly and vice versa?—Peta.

toes and most other esculents, come under the same description.—I humbly conceive that a resolution of this question, would be of importance to a people "paying through the nose" for "English seed wheat, &c." and of more real advantage (with sentiment of respect to the Farming Society be it spoken) than the art of cramming cattle till they become carrion, or of "larding the lean earth" with monstrous pigs.

I am respectfully yours, &c.

ROBERT HOGG.

Original Poetry.

ON MRS. TIGHE'S PSYCHE.

In heavenly Psyche's charmed fate we see,
 A beauteous emblem of the female mind,
 The sorrows and the wayward destiny,
 Of her to whom the god of love is kind,
 The various struggles of the soul refin'd—
 All in thy mellow-warbled lines we trace;
 Like the pure lake thy animated strain,
 Reflects each passing form, each vivid grace,
 That beams round beauty's throne, and
 bids her reign;
 Long shall Rosanna's echoes mourn their
 "Fairy Queen."

The following is a juvenile imitation of
 Moore's Anacreontic style:—

CUPID WOUNDED.

See where gentle love reposes,
 Lull'd upon a bed of roses,
 Surrounded by the wanton graces,
 Who deck him in their sylvan truces,
 On a rose he rests his head,
 Roses are his fragrant bed;
 Soft his slumbers, sweet his dream,
 Psyche is the glowing theme—
 When lo! beneath his purple wing,
 An envious thorn implants a sting—
 A thorn invidious as the dart,
 That ruckles in the lover's heart;
 The crimson tide that rushing flows,
 With vermil that stains the rose;
 The roses drink the vermil dye,
 And with the queen of blushes vie.

J. E.

REVERIE ON THE DODDER.

Unheeded, unknown,
 The Dodder rolls on
 Midst wild banks and mountains sublime:
 But slighted by fame
 From an ill sounding name
 It lives without poet or rhyme:

So bad destiny chose
 A worse name for the rose—
 The pride and the perfume of morn,
 Neglected would fade
 Or blush in the shade
 Like genius to poverty born.

For see yon poor wight,
 Bleak misery's blight,
 His blight harp anstrung by despair;
 Unheeded he roves
 By the stream that he loves,
 The victim of dark-brooding care,

May the sun's vivid ray,
 The last glance of day,
 Tinge the banks of his favourite stream;
 Whilst the sorrows that rest
 In the Poet's sad breast
 Are lost in some fanciful dream.

For fancy 'tis thou
 On the mountains rude brow
 In the day of disaster and gloom;
 Thy magical form
 Illumines the storm
 In the desert thy flowerlike bloom.

In the dark dismal cell
 When with madness you dwell,
 Thy smile evanescent we trace;
 One gleam of delight
 Breaks the sorrowing night
 That hangs on the maniac's face.

Thus the stream moves along,
 Like the poet's vague song,
 Now sunk in oblivious repose;
 Now angry and loud
 Like the storm in the shroud
 It murmurs its fate as it flows. J. H.

CANZONETTE.

The wildest roses bath'd in dew,—
 The blushing buds with odours new,—
 Were not so fresh, so fair to view
 As he alas! that's torn from me!
 Boldest he, in boldest deeds!—
 Gentlest, where soft pity leads,
 My sinking heart in silence bleeds
 For him that was so dear to me.

Sad, I shun the village green,
 Gone is he who grac'd the scene!
 Manly was the mind—the mien,
 Of him that was so dear to me.
 Ah me! in yonder glen he lies,
 Closed in death his speaking eyes,
 The willow weeps, and zephyr sighs
 O'er him that was so dear to me!

U. U. K.

Rialto, 20th Nov. 1813.

IMPROMTU,

Translated from the French.

But Damon's self, can Damon charm,
 And prifree, where's the mighty harm;
 On whom so soon, his choice bests—
 Need Damon fear, a rival—No!

P. D.

ON THE DEATH OF A BELOVED MOTHER.

Behold the Lily in the mead —
The scythe, un pitying, bows its head;
So art thou numbered with the dead,
My Mother.

Virtue, which crown'd thy youthful bloom,
Of horror stript thy placid tomb,
And thou with smiles, couldst meet thy doom,
My Mother.

In the cold grave thy body lies;
Thy purer spirit upward flies;
Thou'rt now an angel of the skies,
My Mother.

Harsh frosts and snows the earth congeal;
And rains o'er'drow thy narrow cell;
But thou their influence can'st not feel,
My Mother.

Borne on ethereal plumes, you soar,
Through regions unconceived before;
New suns and other worlds explore,
My Mother.

Rapt in celestial bliss, you gaze
On Him, whom all the world obeys,
And joined with seraphs, chaunt his praise,
My Mother.

While Death with-holds his shadowy dart,
While the blood eddies through my heart,
My grief for thee shall ne'er depart,
My Mother.

Oh! let thy love protect me still,
Repress those thoughts which tend to ill,
And guide my steps to Sion's hill,
My Mother.

Around me spread thy heavenly wings,
Point out of vice the latent springs;
Oh! warn me when the Siren sings,
My Mother.

So, when the grave shall claim its prize,
In peace I'll close my weary eyes,
And fly to meet thee in the skies,
My Mother.

EPIGRAM.

With self complaisant smile noth Will,
To me, was power of judgment given,
The lower regions fools should fill,
And wits alone, find place in heaven,
O rare, disinterested man,
Eh! selfish thought, he nobly smothered,
How few, on generous William's plan,
Would damn themselves, while saving others,

VOL. I.

Wordsworth has been so often mentioned with the highest respect for his talents by the Edinburgh Reviewers, although they disapprove of his School of Poetry, that it is surprising his best work, his Lyrical Ballads, should scarcely be known in this country—the following extract must, I am sure, be grateful to every reader of genuine taste for poetic compositions:— J. E.

Three years she grew in sun and shower,
Then Nature said "a lovelier flower
On earth was never sown;
This child I to myself will take,
She shall be mine, and I will make
A lady of my own.

Myself will to my darling be
Both law and impulse, and with me,
The Girl in rock and plain;
In earth and heaven, in glade and bower,
Shall feel an overruling power,
To kindle or restrain.

She shall be sportive as the fawn,
That wild with glee across the lawn,
Or up the mountain springs;
And her's shall be the breathing balm,
And her's the silence and the calm,
Of mute incensate things.

The floating clouds their state shall lend;
To her, for her the willow bend;
Nor shall she fast to see,
Even in the motions of the storm,
A beauty that shall mould her form,
By silent sympathy.

The stars of midnight shall be dear,
To her, and she shall lean her ear,
In many a secret place,
Where rivulets dance their wayward rout,
And beauty born of murmuring sound,
Shall pass into her face,

And vital feelings of delight,
Shall rear her form to stately height,
Her virgin bosom swell;
Such thoughts to Lucy I will give,
While she and I together live,
Here in this happy dell.

Thus Nature spake—The work was done,
How soon my Lucy's race was run!
She died and left to me
This heart, this calm and quiet scene,
The memory of what has been,
And never more will be.

Poetry, in Mr. Wordsworth's opinion, is the spontaneous language of man when the mind is raised to a certain degree of elevation above its natural level: in his choice of subjects for this purpose, he sometimes confounds the simple, and the mean, which often creates a disagreeable association, when it is his intention to be serious or pathetic, and is, I think, the source of his most extravagant errors; his Lyrical Ballads are however exempt from faults of this kind.

P

The Drama.

To the Editor of the Monthly Museum.

MR. KEMBLE.

SIR,

THE advocates of Holman's desultory style of acting, in general say, that Kemble's manner is stiff and pedantic, or in other words, that his judgment is more powerful than his execution, and that he compresses to his own limited faculties, the bolder and more pleasing flights of imagination—compare any of Kemble's characters to Holman's, and the fallacy of this position will be discovered at once; the play of *Hamlet*, for instance—the fine, steady, histrionic shading of Kemble; all the parts yielding to the grand outline, as delineated by the Poet, and every line marked with characteristic identity, to the versatile and overflowing exuberance of Holman, which has been termed nature.—I do not wish to derogate from Mr. Holman's abilities—he had beauties to counterbalance many of his defects, but his defects were innumerable.—In Benedict, Petruchio, the Count D'Aranda, and such parts as accorded with the peculiarity of his personal character; he was superior to Talbot or Elliston, but to the talents of Kemble he had no pretensions.—Vanity was the canker, the worm in the bud that destroyed his best efforts; like *l'enfant celebre Beatty*, he blossomed in the spring, but was a boy in his grand climacteric.

Cooke, whose memory has not been sufficiently honored in this country, and who lived amongst us

neglected and despised, went to London for the express purpose (I shall use his own words,) “of clipping the wings of that god”—how far he succeeded, it would not be easy to decide—popular opinion ran high in his favor. There was a rough hewn excellence about Cooke—the chisel of a master, but the costume and drapery were left unfinished: Kemble is a Grecian column of the first order, perfect in all its proportions and decorated by the hand of taste. Where deformity of *body or mind* are requisite, combined with intellectual strength, as in Richard, Sir Giles Overreach, &c. Cooke's genius preponderated for a moment, it shone like a meteor, but it was limited in its course. In Kemble's upper parts, Coriolanus, Macbeth, Hamlet, Lear, &c. he not only stands *unrivaled*, but *alone*—he wields the club of Hercules with the arm of a giant, and the satellite that presumes to glimmer in his sphere, is lost in the brilliancy of his beams. Surely it cannot be from stage-trick that he has gained the power over our feelings—I suspect that we have been so little accustomed to natural intonation, that we scarcely know it when we hear it, and missing the declamatory point and local twang of the *stage*, we are apt to mistake the unexpected ease and simplicity of Kemble for artificial refinement.

J. E.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE MONTHLY MUSEUM.

SIR,

BY the specimen you have given in the first number of your Miscellany, it can easily be perceived, that you will give publicity to any free discussion on the *real* defects of our Stage, actuated by a motive, founded on a wish to strive and remedy them. If the following is worth your notice, the insertion of it will oblige

A Friend to the regularity of the Drama.

Being a spectator of Mr. Kemble's fine pourtraiture of the part of *Brutus*, in the Tragedy of *Julius Cæsar*; I was surprised to see him wear the Toga, or Trabea, in a manner altogether new; I remarked that the colour of the Robe bordered more on the dirty yellow than the white, and that the edging was red instead of purple; for my

part, I believe the Romans prided themselves on the pureness of the white of their robes, and that the binding of them was of the Tyrian hue, so frequently spoken of in Plutarch, Pliny, and Hooke's Roman History; out of the works of the latter I give you an extract.

"The Trabea was adorned with stripes of purple at due distances on a white ground?"—Hooke's Rom. Hist. Vol. I, p. 115.

In all other respects I admire Mr. Kemble's manner of costume, and it may be perceived that the supernumeraries are dressed under his direction.

If through the medium of your magazine, any person can inform me whether Mr. Kemble's manner of dressing that part is perfectly correct, it will much oblige, &c. &c.

DRAMATIC STRICTURES.

Nov. 1. *The Inconstant*—Sleep Walker.

2. *Way to keep him*—Sleep Walker.

Mr. Kemble had been announced for this evening in *Macheth*; but not arriving, Mr. Talbot was induced to perform.—It is certainly a great error in management, to appoint the rising of the stars, (from calculation, in which the drama can never attain to astronomical precision) before they appear above our horizon.—Yet Partridge the almanack-maker did not foretel with more pompous assumption of fate—nor was more flagrantly put to the blush, than the authors of the *star predictions* at the bottom of our play-bills.—Mr. Talbot drew a very respectable house, and retired amidst the marked approbation of the audience—a tribute justly due to his merits as an actor, and his private conduct as a gentleman.

Nov. 3. *Diana*—Eliza Rosenberg.

Cooke was in fine voice, and gave his songs with much effect—particularly that to the enchanting native air, "*Gra machree*".—It was justly remarked in the weekly paper, "that Mrs. Cooke ought to play Clara, and sing the song, "*Adieu thou dreary Pile*".—We re-echo the observation, and add, that as first female singer, it is an injury done to the opera, to withhold her talents from the first character, and thereby cause the omission of so excellent a piece of music.

We hope Miss Walslein will pay a little more attention to Eliza Rosenberg when she next performs it. Mrs. Edwin (although a comic actress) left behind her a very fair transcript how the part should be performed.

Nov. 4. *Wives as they were, Maids as they are—Walterman.*

A thin house, and a most slovenly performance. This is one of the most unpardonable faults which actors can commit. We wish we were not compelled to add, that it is the most frequent.—After having paid one's money for admittance, it is surely sufficiently disagreeable to sit in the chill atmosphere of a thin house, without enduring the penance of seeing the actors all fast asleep, as Lady Macbeth, on the stage. Cannot their own fame, the interests of the theatre, or gratitude to the public awaken them to a sense of their duty?—Painful as this hint may appear, we give it from a friendly, and not a hostile motive. Performers may rest assured, that of an audience thus disappointed, one third go away under the impression that they would not play, and nearly the other two, that they could not.—Now every one of these states his opinion to his friends and acquaintance—and, under such circumstances, who can calculate the drawback on the treasury?

Nov. 5. *Macbeth—Modern Antiques.*

Kemble, either from the fatigue of his voyage or his constitutional malady, shorn of his powers, played the whole part in an under key. We saw the great actor—his management of the scene compelled every one present to acknowledge him such.—But the whole appeared rather as a good rehearsal than a performance.

Why does Miss Walstein strike an attitude at her exit in the sleeping scene—brandishing a candlestick, like a dagger in her hand? This is error. We refer her to Mrs. Siddons's exit. It cannot be improved upon.

We ever wish, where we possibly can, to encourage a new performer. Mr. Neville, like many others, may

by practice improve on critical opinion.

Nov. 7.—*Henry V. or the Conquest of France, (vice Hamlet.)*

This alteration was occasioned by news arriving of Buonaparte's defeat.—It was good management, thus to catch the political "Cynthia of the minute."—Kemble was wonderful energetic and impressive in the speech where he starts from his knees on the sound of the trumpet. Notwithstanding the popular attraction of this play, the illuminations more than half spoiled the house.

We had almost forgot Williams's Welchman. He stands unrivalled in the part.—The three London Stages would be puzzled to find a representative of equal merit.—His petulance—his pompous vanity—his disputations!—his angry sputterings of contradiction—his cholerick contempt for Ancient Pistol, were so shadowed and interwoven with each other, that attention was kept perpetually alive. Fluellen is one of the richest characters in Shakespeare. Bating his length he stands next to Falstaff. But scarcely one actor out of an hundred can perform him as he ought to be.

Nov. 8.—*No Play.*

9.—*Richard the III.—Fortune's Foe.*

Kemble's Richard in his best style. Greatly happy in the sarcastic side speeches.—He rose to an elevation of splendor in some of the most distinguished passages. The triumph of malignant revenge was surely never more glowingly depicted, than in the celebrated passage

"Off with his head.—
"So much for Buckingham."

We are well aware what other actors have done with it.—But Kemble's manner in this, as in many other instances, is truly his

own—original, daring conception—execution powerful yet free, strikingly grand, yet critically just.—The character of Richard is misconceived by nearly one half of its representatives. He is not the raving, bellowing, declamatory tyrant. He differs from almost every villain on the stage. Many think him similar to the other tyrants, and perform him so.—But this is an egregious blunder. There is as evident, as marked a distinction, for instance, between Dionysius and Richard, as between Pierre and Mercutio. Yet are these both tyrants—as those are both “fine, gay, bold-faced villains.” Those actors therefore who perform Richard in the same stile as Dionysius, wander widely from Shakespeare, and as far from nature.—Kemble, ever judicious, ever discriminating, represents him with all the rich colouring of sarcasm, subtlety, cutting irony, hypocritical fawnings, and desperate malignity. He not only portrays these passions in succession; but frequently mingles or artfully shades one with another.—Hence the exquisite contrast—the ever-recurring variety of his Richard.—The actor never tires on his audience; but attention is kept alive throughout, from his first entrance in the Tower to his death in Bosworth field.

Nov. 10.—*Coriolanus*.

We can have no idea but from report of the Falstaff of Quin, or the Lady Macbeth of Pritchard; and some dramatic sceptics doubt the truth of those reports which have reached us.—So will it be with the future age when they peruse the accounts of Kemble's *Coriolanus*. Such was the marked excellence of this night's performance, that could we find language equal to its merits, in times to come, those who had not seen it, would disbelieve us. Actors as well as

authors have their inspired moments—and this night was one of Kemble's.—Alas! that like “the lightning before death,” said to take place in some patients, it should fore-run a violent attack of his constitutional malady. Perhaps the uncommon exertions of this evening contributed to produce the mischief.—Let us hope, however, that it will be but temporary. The new pauses, inflexions—and stage-business observable in this night's performance, shewed us the great possessive power of the finished actor—they proved how greatly, and yet how judiciously Kemble can differ from himself. It was curious to behold some of the papers taking the same stand of observation which they did last season, praising the same points of acting; and completely re-echoing the old remarks—when almost every thing in this night's performance was new; the actor greatly differing from every thing which he formerly did in the character!!!! Could these critical gentlemen possibly have been in the theatre?—or if they were, must they not have been radically stupid—or fast asleep?

Nov. 10.—*The Devil's Bridge*.

We copy the London account of the plot, (which has appeared in only one Dublin print) and shall subjoin a few remarks on the Dublin performance, as it struck us on the first and second representation.

“According to the prevailing taste, it is combined of the various ingredients from which our forefathers composed Tragedy, Comedy, Opera and Pantomime; but which the progress of refinement has enabled us, their descendants, to unite together; and what is more, to relish the mixture among the dramatic *Ollas*, with which the stage has lately teemed. The *Devil's Bridge* holds a very respectable rank, for which it does not stand indebted to its music only, but also to some interesting situations, and a general interest

issuing from the story, which is briefly this: Count Belino, a Sicilian Nobleman, happening to be in Piedmont, though, whether upon business, or pleasure, is not recorded, becomes enamoured of the Lady Rosalva, the youthful daughter of an old Swiss Marchioness, and some obstacles opposing their union, a private marriage (*Sicut ut mos est*.) takes place; shortly after which, a death bed summons calls the Count from the arms of his bride, to attend his uncle at Palermo; at Palermo, however, he never arrives, for his vessel is cast away, and as misfortunes never come single, he is himself taken by pirates, and sent captive into Barbary, where, leaving him at present, to rail at fate, we return to the poor Countess, who in due time, and with all needful secrecy, brings into the world a son and heir, whom she confides to the care of Marcelli, an honest Inn-keeper, who brings the child up as his own. At the time the Piece commences, the child is about five years old. The Count has made his escape from the infidels, and in disguise of an itinerant Painter, arrives at Marcelli's Inn, and learns to his great dismay, that, he being supposed dead, his Countess is upon the point of wedlock with the Baron Toraldi, whom, however, she hates, and to avoid him, she flies from her mother's castle, and takes refuge in Marcelli's house. Toraldi, the villain of the piece, being benighted on returning from a hunting excursion, takes up his abode the same evening at Marcelli's, along with Paolo, his confident and confederate in mischief, and no small degree of interest is excited from three persons being together under the same roof, who had such powerful motives to avoid each other: for the Count being disguised, is not known as Belino, but is suspected by Marcelli (on his having betrayed strong emotion at sight of the child,) to be a secret spy of Toraldi's, and he is therefore in great distress and perplexity to keep both mother and child concealed from all parties until he effects their escape, which is at last accomplished. Meantime Belino imprudently betrays himself to Toraldi, and is immured in a dungeon, from which he is rescued, and escapes as Paolo's dagger is raised for his destruction.—After wandering about the mountains till he is exhausted, our readers will not be surprised to find that he arrives at the cottage of Marcelli's father, to which the Countess and child have been previously conveyed, and a meeting with all the *etceteras* ensues, but ere their *Te Drum* is concluded, lo! intelligence ar-

rives, that the Baron and the whole *Poss Comitatus* are approaching! What's to be done? To escape is impossible, to remain, destruction. Fortunately, Marcelli recoilects, that his father, (who sold gunpowder to the hunters of the Alps,) kept his Magazine under the foundation of a bridge, which crossed a terrific mountain torrent, hence called, "The Devil's Bridge," and which the Baron and his party must pass ere he can reach them. A train is laid, and while the enemy is triumphantly crossing the bridge, the mine is sprung, and bridge and Baron, terminate their earthly career, in "hideous ruin and combustion." The other party have no leisure amidst their satisfaction, to regret either the bridge, the Baron, or the irreparable loss of the gunpowder; but finding themselves perfectly happy, the curtain drops."

Much attention appears to have been paid to this piece at the rehearsals.—The scenes succeeded each other with a regularity and effect highly creditable to the theatre, and wholly different from that bustle and confusion to which we have been accustomed in pieces which had not half the business of this.—The carpenters on the first representations made sad work of blowing up the Bridge. But in the latter nights they have materially amended.—When the Baron Toraldi retires from the Bridge, it would be easy to convey a figure on it dressed exactly like him, which might fall in the explosion, and would greatly add to the effect.—In London the soldiers fall with it, some clinging to the scenery, others precipitated into the torrent below, &c. &c. All this might be done without any danger, by a little practice at rehearsals.

The new scenery in this piece is an honor to the artist.—It was wildly picturesque, and executed with the hand of a master. Considerable expence must have been incurred; and so far the Manager deserves praise.—Among the performers, Cooke challenges foremost consideration.—His action, deportment, in short his whole

management of the scene as an actor, are much improved.

When then Baron Toral di questions the Count relative to the drawing, Cooke's song both for taste as singer, and acting merit as a performer, (two qualifications which rarely centre in the same object) is entitled to the most honourable mention. It has, during the successive representations of the piece, drawn down the most marked applause, and the general encore.

Thompson in the part of Paolo gave much support to the interest of the piece, particularly in the dungeon scene. But why was he not cast in the Baron?—Mr. Neville was very inadequate to such a character. We would be the last to crush the theatrical adventurer in his road to fame. But really this young man wants practice—and has to acquire many essential requisites before he can fill such a line of business.

Johnson over-acted Marcelli. But the author led him into the error. This part of the opera is vilely written.—The language given to the child, and the strong replies on both sides, are such as never could occur in real life.—If an author will thus inflate his dialogue with unmeaning and overstrained expression, in violation of character and in defiance of ridicule, what is an actor to do? He must speak what is set down for him; and it is not very easy to reduce pomp and affectation to the pure simplicity of nature.

Mr. W. Farran performed Petro—a character (we had almost said) new to the stage.—One of the papers, rather quaintly, terms it "a vocal scaramouch."—The actor strove to do something with it.—But we could not observe that it had any wonderful effect with the audience.

Mrs. Cooke sang the airs of the Countess charmingly. But the dialogue was too much for her. But for this defect we have long been accustomed to compound with our best singers.

Nov. 13.—*Wheel of Fortune*.—*Love Laughs at Locksmiths*.

Kemble pursued the same course as in his *Richard and Coriolanus*—and in this night's performance produced as many variations in Penrudduck—some of them were improvements—others shades of difference without abatement in excellence or increase of effect—and in one instance, we think rather injurious to the scene.—We mean, the omission of the sentence

"A naked shivering wretch approached me, and I with a remorseless frown bid her begone. I have the mark of Cain on my countenance, &c. &c."

No fancied idea of stage effect can justify the omission of such a passage, marked as it is by the very finger of dramatic inspiration.

Nov. 15.—*Hamlet*.—*With the Weathercock* announced in the Bill.—*Mrs. Kemble* taken ill.—*Belle's Strategem* substituted.

The galleries unwarrantably and shamefully tumultuous.

Nov. 16.—*Every one has his Fault*.—*The Devil to Pay*.

17.—*The Devil's Bridge*.—*Ella Rosenberg*.

18.—*Do*. *Citizen*.

19.—*Do*. *Midnight Hour*.

20.—*The School for Scandal*.—*Quaker*.—(By Command.)

This was the first time of their Excellencies publicly attending the theatre.—A full and splendid house. The play went off with much *ecclat*. The parts of Sir Peter and Lady Teazle were ably sustained, by Mr. W. Farran and Miss O'Neill. Mr. Shaw, as Steady, in the Farce, was deservedly applauded and well received throughout.

Nov. 22.—*The Devil's Bridge*.—*Glenn to his for Love*.

23.—*The Lady of the Lake*.—Ella Rosenberg.

Miss Walstein's Blanch one of her finest and most interesting performances.—Mr. Thompson's Rhoderick Dhu—With the exception of Mr. H. Johnston, the best actor that has appeared in the part. The rest of the characters far inferior to its first representatives.

Nov. 24.—*The Devil's Bridge*.—St. Patrick's Day.

25.—*Lady of the Lake*.—Inch and Yarrow.

26.—*Stranger*.—Adopted Child.

Recovered from his indisposition, Mr. Kemble appeared in this truly affecting character. In the hands of such an actor as Kemble, the *Stranger* is a *part of sympathy*.—The feeling for his sufferings is universal—known to all and felt by all—as is the passion from whence all his calamities spring. There is a peculiar *tone* in Kemble's acting this character. It appears to originate more from the pathos of the heart than the science of the head.—He frequently seems in the delivery of certain passages, to lose himself—but he loses himself in the character. During the last scene, we were forcibly struck by a whisper between two ladies seated before us. The remark fell from the elder of the two.—It was made when Kemble tore the release given him by his wife—and was a fine tribute of praise paid this great actor.—“He must surely, in the early part of his life have experienced some cruel disappointment himself—or he never could perform in this manner.”—After all, we are inclined to admit as an axiom.—That in love scenes, the Ladies are the best Critics.

Nov. 28.—*Cato*.—*Love Laughs at Locksmiths*.

We have scarcely a line's space left to record the praises of a performance which ought justly to oc-

cupy whole pages.—Who but Kemble could give with equal effect, the repressed energies of this character? Mr. Kemble's delivery of the soliloquy at the commencement of the 5th act is sufficient to immortalize his fame for ever as an actor.

Struggling amid the unsubdued effects of his disease, his exertions were impeded in several of the declamatory sentences. Cato's agony lest Marcus had betrayed his post—and the speeches over the body were however given in his best manner.—No beauty ever emanated from the stage more pathetically dignified than the solemn charge to his surviving son,

“Portia when I am dead—be sure to place his urn near mine.”

In the dying scene how affecting was his last parental advice to Portia relative to the Numidian Prince!—first laying his hand on her cheek—then bending his head to her bosom, with what exquisite tenderness he uttered

“Juba loves thee, Marcia!”

“A senator of Rome, while Rome survives’d,”

“Would not have match'd his daughter with a king;”

“But Caesar's arms have thrown down all distinction!”

The awful appeal to the supreme on the act of suicide—and indeed the whole conduct and *tone* of the dying lines were never surpassed by the most highly-famed representatives of this virtuous Roman.

We have seen him much more happy in the soliloquy—and on no account (except the plea of infirmity) can we reconcile ourselves to the omission of two speeches, which contain some of the finest lines Addison ever wrote: the one

“Have you forgotten Lybia's burning wastes? &c.”

and the other alluding to the heroes of old Rome

“For him the self-devoted Decii died,”

“The Fabii fell, and the great Scipio conquer'd, &c. &c.”

Monthly Register.

POLITICAL RETROSPECT.

Dublin, Museum-Office, 20th November, 1813.

The continent of Europe has exhibited, within the last eighteen months, the most extraordinary vicissitudes, in military affairs, that have been recorded in any part of the annals of the world. The elevation of Buonaparte to the Imperial Throne gave to this extraordinary man, whose genius seems to have been commensurate to his ambition, an opportunity of wielding the immense power of that empire, which the revolutionary heroism of nearly twenty years had erected on the ruins of the ancient monarchy of France. Buonaparte, by a series of successes; had obtained the honor of being considered the greatest captain of this, or of any other age. The confidence resulting from so great an advantage, heightened too by an alliance, (which was won by his valour) with the most ancient family in Christendom, seemed to foment that ambition, which has uniformly urged him, if not to command, at least to influence the continental Princes to act in subserviency either to his personal glory or to the interests of France.

It had long been the favourite object of Buonaparte, to destroy the commercial and naval greatness of England, but as the French marine had been completely destroyed during the revolutionary war, he could not attempt any competition on the ocean, or meditate any direct attack against the British Empire. He therefore resorted to a project, which, although it would undoubtedly impoverish the continent of Europe if it should be rigorously enforced, would, if unrelentingly maintained, destroy the pre-eminence of the British Empire, deriving its greatness from its superiority in the useful arts, and from its uninterrupted trade with the rest of the world. Buonaparte denominated his project "the continental system." The system was enforced with the greatest strictness in France, and in the tributary states, while Buonaparte, as if insensible to the wretchedness which ensued from the interruption of the trade between England and the continent of Europe, seemed to have his feelings entirely absorbed in the contemplation of the injuries, which would be sustained by Great Britain. By the continental

system, British merchandize and colonial produce were prohibited to be imported into France, or into those auxiliary states which were either members of the Confederation of the Rhine (a military association founded on the ruins of the ancient constitution of Germany) or which had recognized the principles of its establishment. After the peace of Tilsit, even the Emperor of Russia acceded to this confederacy against the commercial greatness of England, and until the commencement of the present war; the system operated in every port from the extremity of the Baltic to the Adriatic, with the exception of the coast of Portugal, and some few maritime towns in Spain.

The privations which the inhabitants of those States, in which the continental system was adopted, were compelled to endure had excited considerable discontent, but particularly in Russia, where the aristocracy, which is partly feudal and partly commercial, could not patiently endure the immense resources of their country rendered utterly unproductive, on account of a project, in which they could not feel any interest, either of a remote, or an immediate nature. In Russia the system had not been rigorously enforced. British manufactures were either clandestinely introduced, or regulations were adopted by the Government, which rendered the system either inoperative or nugatory. In consequence of such relaxation, so offensive to the pride of the court of France, remonstrances were addressed by Buonaparte to the Emperor of Russia, but as the case would not admit any satisfactory explanation, where the one party required what the other was determined not to grant, a war became inevitable.

War was accordingly declared, and Buonaparte took the field, about the commencement of the summer of 1812, at the head of an army of 400,000 men, consisting of the veteran troops of France, the contingents of the Confederation of the Rhine, and the auxiliary force of Prussia and Austria. Europe never beheld so formidable an army, and the most gloomy apprehensions were entertained, that Russia,

incapable of resisting such an overwhelming force, would be subjugated and dismembered. The first events of the campaign, seemed to justify the alarm; for the Russian army, as if conscious of its inability to oppose the invader, retired from the Vistula into the interior of the Empire. They abandoned the fortified camp of Drissa—and, after having made an ineffectual resistance at Smolensko, were defeated with immense slaughter at the memorable battle of the Borodino. The unfortunate event of this battle left Moscow at the mercy of the invader, but the Russian Government being determined not to suffer the resources of the second capital of the Empire to fall into the possession of the enemy, set fire to the city and reduced it to ashes, at the very moment when the conqueror approached its walls, and hoped to find an asylum for his troops against the rigour of the winter, in so northern a latitude.

The conflagration of Moscow is one of those sacrifices to which modern history furnishes no parallel, although instances of a similar kind abound in the records of former ages. The progress of civilization and the influence of christianity have destroyed all the ferocious characteristics, which disgraced the warfare of ancient times. In the ancient ages of the world, when a nation was conquered, the inhabitants were either exterminated or carried away into slavery, and doomed to perform the most ignominious offices. In the history of modern Europe, the conquest of a nation is, in respect to the inhabitants, only a transfer of allegiance, and therefore that powerful motive no longer exists, which would induce the people of any country, to commit a kind of national suicide, sooner than submit to the yoke of a conqueror. Even in the most barbarous part of Moscovy the mitigated practice of modern warfare was too well known, to leave any cause to suppose, that the terror of the invader's sword had driven the inhabitants of Moscow to such an act of desperation.—The conflagration of the city, was an event of mere policy, adopted by the Russian Government to save the Empire.

Bonaparte, after a delay of six weeks and the ruins of Moscow, commenced his retreat about the end of the month of Oct. 1812, and the circumstance has been supposed to prove the efficacy of the mode which had been adopted to check the progress of the invader. The conflagration of Moscow was one of the circumstances which compelled Bonaparte to retreat towards Poland, but it was not the sole cause.

When Bonaparte had entered the Russian

territory he divided his army, sending towards Riga a considerable portion of it under Marshal M'Donald, while he proceeded towards Moscow. The army under M'Donald was composed, principally, of the auxiliary troops furnished by Prussia, whose King had long considered himself to be a mere vassal of the French Empire—Bonaparte had hoped that M'Donald's army should be able to arrive at St. Petersburg, when the grand French army should have reached Moscow; but his expectations were not fulfilled. That hostility, which subsequently assumed an active form, was then secretly working in M'Donald's camp; and every day was marked by some repulse, or check, or defeat, which the French General suffered before the walls of Riga, but which could not have occurred if he had been cordially supported by the auxiliary troops. In the mean time the Emperor of Russia had settled some differences which had existed between him and Sweden; and the circumstance, together with the slow progress in the siege of Riga, enabled the Russian Government to detach those troops towards Moscow, which otherwise would have been necessary for the defence of Finland, and the protection of St. Petersburg. Through the influence of the British Cabinet, a peace was concluded between Russia and the sublime Porte, which enabled the large Russian army, that had been engaged near the Turkish frontier, to proceed towards Minsk, for the purpose of destroying the communication between the French army and its resources in Poland and Germany. All those circumstances compelled Bonaparte to commence that disastrous retreat, which was marked by the loss of 120,000 men, and 50,000 horses, perishing from the want of food, the rapidity of their flight, the inclemency of the season, and the incessant attacks of their pursuers. Even Bonaparte had been nearly taken prisoner, in consequence of the negligent manner in which the Austrian auxiliary corps had performed the duty, assigned to it, of keeping open the communication between Minsk and Warsaw. The Prussian corps deserted from M'Donald's army—Poland was abandoned—the eastern part of Prussia with the exception of the strong fortresses, were abandoned—the King of Prussia having escaped from a kind of captivity at Berlin, formed an alliance with the Emperor of Russia, and the remains of the immense army, not amounting to more than 130,000 men took post under the walls of Magdeburg.

Bonaparte, who continued with his army during its retreat until it had approach-

ed so near to Wilna, as to be no longer in danger of being intercepted or captured, having selected a large guard from among the inferior officers, proceeded to Paris with his habitual rapidity of movement.—He arrived there just as a conspiracy to overturn his Government had been detected and suppressed. The conspiracy, which resembled the insignificant plots of the unemployed officers, of a republican spirit, during the reign of Charles X., originated with some few military men, who, on account of their attachment to the early principles of the French revolution, were disqualified to hold any office under the Imperial Government. Buonaparte seemed to have disregarded the conspiracy, for his thoughts were principally turned towards the means of repairing the disasters of the campaign. He detailed, in an official form, the whole of the losses which he had sustained.—He appealed to the feelings of the French nation, proud of its high military character.—He withdrew the principal part of the veterans from Spain—He raised new levies, and in the course of three months he was enabled to open the campaign at the head of 250,000 men.

Such an effort was unparalleled and unexpected, even from a man of such an energy of mind, but there was one branch of his army, in which he was deficient. His cavalry, although numerous, was ineffectual because untrained, but to remedy so great a defect, he had brought into the field a train of artillery far exceeding the usual proportion.

Buonaparte, having completed his arrangements for the campaign, appeared at the head of his army, and fought the celebrated battle of Lutzen on the 2d of May, 1813.—The allies, who had received intelligence of his approach, endeavoured to obtain possession of advantageous ground in the vicinity of Lutzen, but the rapidity of the movements of the French army frustrated their intention. They resolved however to dislodge the enemy, whose force amounted to upwards of 200,000 men, but their intention was again frustrated by the French Emperor, who had determined to attack the Russian and Prussian armies in front—in the flanks and in the rear. The great numerical superiority of the French army, which consisted of upwards of 200,000 men, while the whole force of the allies did not amount to 120,000, in consequence of the manner in which the Russian army had spread itself, on its entrance into Germany, to the extremity of Silesia on one side, and to Hamburgh on the other. The plan was successful and the allies

were forced to retire from the field after having lost about 40,000 men, but Buonaparte was unable to take many prisoners in consequence of the inefficient state of his cavalry. The allies retreated very slowly to Dresden, which they soon abandoned and proceeded to the strong position of Bautzen, where they formed an entrenched camp, which was defended by upwards of 300 redoubts and several fortified villages. On the 21st of May, 1813, a sanguinary conflict, which lasted two days, commenced, but the numerical superiority of the French prevailed in the celebrated battles of Bautzen and Wutzen, as it had prevailed at the battle of Lutzen. The allied troops, which did not exceed 70,000 men, were out-flanked, and were attacked at the same time in front flank and rear, by a force of 120,000 men. A rapid retreat into Silesia ensued, and an armistice, which had been proposed with the habitual policy of the conqueror, was immediately adopted on the 4th of June. The terms of the armistice were peculiarly favourable to the French, as it was one of the conditions, that the fortresses which they occupied should be re-occupied by the allies every fifth day; but it must be acknowledged that the allies obtained in the suspension of hostilities, an opportunity of strengthening their armies, by reinforcements from Russia, and by new levies in the Prussian territories. During the interval, which the armistice afforded, the Crown Prince of Sweden, who had been subsidized by Great Britain, was enabled to convey his troops to the North of Germany, and a negotiation was commenced with the Emperor of Austria, for the purpose of inducing him to join in the coalition. It was stipulated that the armistice should last only to the 20th of July, but as Buonaparte had not obtained all the reinforcements which he expected, and as the Emperor of Austria had not determined on which side he should draw the sword, the armistice was prolonged and all the solemnities of negotiation were recommenced. At length the Emperor of Austria, formed an alliance offensive and defensive with the King of Prussia and the Emperor of Russia, and the stipulated notice of six days was given to Buonaparte that the armistice would expire on the 16th of August.

During the suspension of hostilities, General Moreau, who had lived in exile in America, returned to Europe at the solicitation of the Emperor of Russia, and he was appointed to a distinguished rank in the allied army. It was his advice, that

the united Austrian, Russian, and Prussian army, which had been assembled in Bohemia to the amount of 150,000 men, should proceed into Saxony by the pass of Peterwalde, and endeavour to take the city of Dresden by assault, while Bonaparte was engaged in Silesia, and while the Crown Prince of Sweden who commanded an army of 100,000 men, should occupy the attention of the French marshals that were posted in the vicinity of Magdeburg. An attack was accordingly made on the 26th of August, but Bonaparte, having unexpectedly returned to Dresden from Silesia at the head of his guards, issued from the city, and after a dreadful conflict, completely routed the allies, who lost about 50,000 men with a large train of artillery, and waggons. An attempt was made to cut off their retreat, but General Vandamme, who had been sent to Culin with a corps of 30,000 men to prevent the return of the allies, by the pass at Peterwalde, having descended from the mountain, under a vain hope of putting the whole of the retreating army to the sword, was overpowered and about 12,000 of his troops were killed or taken prisoners.

General MOREAU, who had planned the attack of Dresden, having been struck by a cannon ball, was obliged to undergo amputation in both his legs, died shortly after the grand allied army had reached Bohemia; but the principles on which his advice was founded, still governed the movements of the allies. Marshal M'Donald having been repulsed with considerable loss from the frontiers of Silesia, to the right bank of the Elbe, and the attempt, which had been made by Marshal Ney, to penetrate to Berlin, having been frustrated, it was determined to encircle the French force, amounting to about 180,000 men, posted between the city of Leipsic, and the confluence of the Saale and Elbe. Accordingly the army of Berlin, and the army of Gen. Blücher, having crossed the Elbe, and having, after a variety of manœuvres, extended their lines to the vicinity of Leipsic, while the grand allied army, issuing from Bohemia by various routes, proceeded towards the south side of the same city. The junction of the grand allied army with the army of Berlin, and General Blücher's army was effected; and on the 13th of October the circle was completed, which intercepted all communication between Buonaparte and his resources. The object of the plan referred to, one of two events, to either the annihilation of the French army, or its unconditional surrender.—I

was resolved, therefore, that a simultaneous attack should be made, on the next day, on every part of the French line, but by some fatality, which has not as yet been explained, the united army under the Crown Prince and General Blücher was not prepared to carry the plan into execution, until a late hour in the day. The delay rendered the plan almost useless, because Buonaparte, profiting by the circumstance, attacked at an early hour in the morning the grand allied army which had advanced from Bohemia, and having by a successful manœuvre, broken their centre, obtained such an advantage that he was enabled to send a considerable part of his force, which had been engaged with the grand army, to that part of his line which was attacked by General Blücher's army.—The conflict on each part of the line was sanguinary, but not decisive. Both parties kept the ground which they had occupied at the beginning of the day, and the whole of 17th of October was spent in a state of inactivity. On the 18th the entire of the Saxon, Bavarian, and Wirtemberg troops deserted to the allies, and the circumstance hastened the retreat of Buonaparte towards his resources on the Rhine. Leipsic was accordingly evacuated on the 19th with considerable loss, and the retreating army was so closely pressed, that Buonaparte was compelled to destroy the bridge over the Pleiss, and leave the entire of his rear guard in the power of the allies.—The aggregate loss of Buonaparte inclusive of the defection of his auxiliaries, may be estimated at about 80,000 men.

Buonaparte was obliged by another circumstance to endeavour to proceed towards the Rhine with the greatest speed. General Wrede, who commanded the Bavarian army, having concluded a treaty of alliance in the name of his Sovereign with the Emperor of Austria, and being reinforced by some Austrian troops, advanced towards Frankfort on the Mayne by forced marches, under the hope of preventing the retreating army from arriving at the Rhine.—Wrede's force arrived in sufficient time at Hanau, near Frankfort, but it was overpowered on the 30th October by the retreating army, General Wrede having been severely wounded, and above 15,000 of his troops having been killed or taken prisoners.

Buonaparte, having placed the army with which he retreated from Leipsic, on the left bank of the Rhine, returned to Paris on the 9th November, and having convoked the Senate, demanded new le-

vies, rendered the more necessary by the defection of the principal States of the Confederation of the Rhine, and by the new approach of hostile armies on almost every side of the French Empire. A conscription of 360,000 men was decreed, but the urgency of his affairs having compelled him to withdraw all the French troops that had been stationed in Holland, an insurrection broke out on the 16th November in all the principal cities in the province—in Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Leyden, Haarlem, &c. and a provisional government was established in the name of the Prince of Orange, who was invited by a special deputation, to return to his native Country, and assume the stadtholdership. The Deputies who had been sent to London, were also instructed to solicit aid from the British Government, and his Majesty's ministers instantly determined to send a force of 10,000 men, to assist the Insurgents in the restoration of the ancient Republic.

[The subsequent numbers of this Magazine shall contain a correct and circumstantial detail of the military affairs of Europe, to the end of each succeeding month; founded on authentic documents, and interspersed with suitable observations.]

The *Moniteur* of the 17th instant has arrived, which contains two *Motifs du Sénatus Consulte*. They are extremely long. The following is a brief abstract of them: The first is for placing 300,000 men at the disposition of the Ministers of War. It begins by referring to the memorable sitting, in which the Empress pointed out the necessities of France, and that France could only be safe by proportioning her efforts to those made to subject her; that at that period the defection of Bavaria, the desertion of the Saxons were unknown—that circumstances had rendered glorious victories barren—that the cry of alarm and for assistance of our children and brothers, still in arms, still gloriously fight on the banks of the Rhine, resounded on the banks of the Seine, the Rhone, the Doubs, the Grande, the Moselle and the Loire, &c. &c. ask what would the situation of France be, should the enemies who are on her frontiers, penetrate into her territories—asserts that the meeting of Plenipotentiaries on the part of the Allies, was only intended to deceive—refers to the partition of Poland, as a warning to France—appeals to the honour of Frenchmen; and concludes by saying, that surrounded by the whole power of the nation, the Emperor as moderate as when he

granted Austria the Peace of Leoben and Campo Formio, in the hope of signing that of Europe, may wisely prepare peace by balancing the conditions with justice, and signing it with honour.

The second is for the prerogative of the powers of the Deputies of the Legislative Body of the 4th series shall exercise their functions during the whole of the Session which shall open on the 2d December next, assigning as a reason that circumstances would not admit of the delay for replacing those going out.

The third is, that his Majesty should appoint to the presidency of the Legislative Body, in place of Chossy as heretofore, from among five candidates presented them by the Legislative Body.—Those three projects were adopted.

Then follows a decree, by Arts, of which three hundred thousand conscripts, taken from the classes of 1806, 1807, and following years, to, and including 1814, are placed at the disposition of the Minister of War.—Art. 2. states, that 50,000 men shall be immediately levied for active service, and 50,000 more held in readiness should the eastern territory be invaded.

In the House of Commons, on the 17th inst, Lord Castlereagh brought forward the question of Subsidies, to be granted to the allied powers, to enable them to continue their exertions in the present arduous contest. His Lordship represented the Coalition powers as animated by one wish—that of restoring peace and independence to Europe, on principles consistent with their safety, and with the honor of France. At the same time he took care to explain, that the terms proposed to that power, by Austria, previous to the renewal of hostilities, were not terms for a general pacification, but only conditions on which Austria individually consented to offer her armed mediation, and which, never binding on any other of the allied powers, had ceased to do so on Austria herself, the moment they were rejected. The total amount of subsidies exclusive of those to Sweden, which are to form a separate article, he stated for the present, at ten million four hundred thousand pounds; but it was possible the sum might be increased. Of this four million four hundred thousand pounds were employed for the assistance of our Allies in the prosecution of the war in the Peninsula, in the following proportions:—2,000,000*l.* to Spain, 2,000,000*l.* to Portugal, and 400,000*l.* to Sicily. The re-

maining six millions were attributed to the vigorous prosecution of the war in the North. Out of that sum Russia and Prussia received five millions, and Austria one; the probable augmentation in the subsidies would be for that power, when the treaties should be regularly exchanged. Of these sums, the greatest part had already been paid out of the direct votes, the vote of credit, and the extraordinaries of the army; and his Lordship moved only for a vote of three millions on account, to enable Government to continue the same assistance to the allied powers, till the months of January or March next, when further communication would be made to the House. Mr. Whitbread supported Lord Castlereagh's propositions, in the conviction and upon the clear understanding, that all the efforts of the allies and of ministers tended to procure a safe and honourable peace, consistent, at the same time, with the honour of France. On those terms he was willing that England should contribute towards the common cause, all the men and all the money they could possibly spare.

CATHOLIC BOARD.

Saturday, 20th Nov.

NICHOLAS MAHON, Esq. in the Chair.

THE Chairman read the answers he had received from Lord Donoughmore and Mr. Grattan, respecting a communication on the form of a Bill for the relief of the Catholics. They are rather long for insertion here; but it is sufficient to say, that they both contained the strongest determinations to have no communication with the Board upon the subject. Lord Donoughmore was peculiarly warm; and amongst other remarks on the impropriety of the proposal, said that he would not condescend to receive instructions for the discharge of that duty he had undertaken; which he knew so well; and which he never deserved. Mr. Grattan, after declining any communication, remarked, "that there were other regular established ways by which the Catholics could convey all their wishes."

Mr. O'Connell in a very argumentative speech, shewed that the worthy representatives were entirely mistaken as to the object of the Board in the proposed communication. It sought nothing but respectful suggestion—not "dictation."—He concluded by moving that the Board should reply, in order to explain the mistakes which these respectable individuals laboured under.

Mr. Costigan opposed it. He said that they deserved the thanks of the Board for their excellent letters.

After some observations from Messrs. Finn, O'Connell, M'Donnell, and Doctor Dromgoole, Mr. O'Connell moved his resolution, which was opposed by Mr. O'Gorman, who insisted that there was no mistake on the part of Lord Donoughmore or Mr. Grattan, but, on the contrary, a very clear and distinct understanding.—Mr. O'Connell then entered his resolution as a notice for next Saturday.

Mr. George Lidwill.—This gentleman was lately nominated to the Board by the Catholics of Derry; and, in declining that honor, delivered a speech, which, although of some hours, was so peculiarly eloquent and interesting, that there was not one auditor but regretted when he sat down. It will not be expected that an oration which would occupy a pamphlet, should be given in a Magazine that embraces such a variety of objects as the Museum, and more especially, as will be seen, that ample means are to be adopted for its general diffusion.

Saturday, Nov. 27.

Mr. O'Connell moved that 10,000 copies of Mr. Lidwill's speech be printed and circulated. It was seconded by Owen O'Connor, opposed by Messrs. Shiel, and Baggot, but finally carried. After which some routine business was transacted, and the Board adjourned.

Sir Thomas Esmonde, Bart. in the Chair.—Doctor Dromgoole said he would postpone his resolution relative to Crown interference in the appointment of Catholic Bishops, on account of Mr. O'Connell's absence who meant to oppose it; but while he was speaking that gentleman came in, and declared he had no intention of opposition—however, it being near five o'clock, the learned Doctor thought it too late to move the resolution.

Upon the motion of Mr. O'Connell, a committee, with Lord Ffrench as Chairman, was appointed to answer the letters of Lord Donoughmore and Mr. Grattan.

Mr. O'Gorman having observed that the country members were much inconvenienced, and frequently prevented from attending, by the delay in the Board meetings; and that they ought to sit daily until the affairs of business should be abated, moved, "that the Board do adjourn on Wednesday next," which being seconded by Mr. James Lalor, was agreed to without opposition.—Adjourned.

BIRTHS.

In Merriam-square, the Hon. Mrs. George Knos, of a daughter.

The Lady of Henry Morrey, Esq. of Cherry Garden, King's County, of a son and heir.

At Oriel Temple, the Right Hon. Lady Harriet Foster, of a son.

At Cove, the Lady of William Thorne, Esq. Captain in the 3d Garrison Battalion, of a daughter.

MARRIAGES.

At Inver Church, county Donegal, Thomas Staples, Esq. eldest son of the Right Honourable John Staples of Lissau, to Catherine, daughter of the late Rev. J. Hawkins, eldest son of the late Lord Bishop of Raphoe.

John B. Gilmore, Esq. of Carrickfergus, to Barbara, eldest daughter of the Rev. Thomas Spotswood, Rector of Baliscullen.

At Portarlington, Thomas Despard, Esq. of Killaghy Castle, in the county Tipperary, to Caroline, third daughter of the late Robert Cary, Esq.

William Emerson Scroder, Esq. of Sea-ville in the County of Waterford, to Miss Anne Scroder of Waterford.

At Castletown Church, county Cork, Lieutenant Packer, of the Royal Navy, to Mary Anne daughter of Robert Simpson, Esq. Lieutenant in the late Hampshire Regiment of Light Dragoons.

Charles Hamilton, Esq. Captain in the County Dublin Militia, and second son of the late James Hamilton, Esq. of Dunboyne Castle, county Meath, to Rosetta, eldest daughter of the late Thomas Bernard, Esq. of Gayville, in the county Carlow.

Mr. James Kearney, of Exchequer-street, to Miss Mary Linam of Exchequer-street.

In Cork, by the Right Rev. Dr. Segrue, Charles Segrue, Esq. to Miss Segerson.

At Stewartstown, Robert M'Reynolds, Esq. Lieutenant of the Cloose Yeomanry, to Mrs. Sarah Baley, relict of the late Walter Baley, Esq.

J. Hodder, Esq. to Barbara, youngest daughter of the late John Martin, Esq. of Killahora, county Cork.

William Finn, Esq. of the town of Carlow, to Miss Charlotte Scot, of the same place.

W. Lowther, Esq. of Newcomen Lodge, North Strand, to Jane, second daughter of the late J. Sharkey of Bray, county Wicklow.

At the Friends Meeting-House, Granges, near Charlemont, Wm. Locke, of Belfast, to Arabella, eldest daughter of T. Shaw, of Beech Valley, Dungannon.

DEATHS.

On the 19th inst. in Camden-street, of a long obstinate, and most painful illness, in the 69th year of her age—Mrs. Haynes, formerly of Kenav-court, county Kildare. Through life, amiable woman was distinguished for all those qualities which embellish and endear, the most exemplary among her sex, and to the moment of her dissolution, sustained her sufferings with a fortitude corresponding with the piety and gentleness of her spirit.

Mrs. Bayne, wife of Mr. Wm. Bayne, Steward of the House of Industry.

Mr. James Dignum, Proprietor of the Carlisle Tavern.

Mrs. Kelly, wife of Mr. M. Kelly, of Great Britain-street.

County Roscommon, Mrs. Elwood, wife of Edward Elwood, Esq. late Captain in the 7th Royal Fusiliers.

At Ipswich, at the advanced age of 93, Philip Barling, Esq. one of the oldest Members of the Royal College of Surgeons in London.

At Kiltinane Castle, Mrs. Cooke, wife of Robert Cooke, Esq. and sister of Sir Wheeler Cuffe, Bart.

In George's-street, Limerick, in consequence of the bursting of a blood vessel, the amiable and accomplished Miss Barbara Saunders, second daughter of the late Henry Saunders, Esq. and Grand daughter of the late Sir Christopher Knight, Alderman. Her eldest brother, Lieutenant Henry Saunders, of the 9th Foot, fell by a cannon shot at the memorable battle of Vitoria.

At his Son's house in Peter's-row, Waterford, at the advanced age of 102, Mr. George Palmer, of Rahine, in the county of Kildare.

At Gorey, county Wexford, James Pipard, Esq. late Sovereign of that town.

In the 88th year of his age, James Carr, Esq. late Master of St. Stephen's Hospital, Cork. He was the oldest Freemason in Munster, and for several years filled the office of Treasurer to that Province.

At Millmount, near Kilmecr, county Galway, in the 25th year of his age, James Cannon, Esq. son to John Cannon, of Millmount, Esq.

In Caroline-row, Summerhill, Mrs. Catherine O'Connor.

On the 25th of August last, at sea, Lieutenant-Colonel M'Kenzie, of the 41st Regiment.

In the town of Tipperary, Mrs. Massey, wife of the Rev. William Massey, of that town.

Mrs. Bomford, wife of the Rev. Thomas Bomford, of Killucan, co. Westmeath.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

We feel ourselves highly favored by the communications of "*An Anchorite*"—and are sorry our arrangements for the present month, were previously made before we received his valuable Essay.—In our next Number we will pay every attention to his favors.

The Verses of A. B. C. D. are deficient in harmony. If the author will polish their numbers, we shall again take them into consideration. On mature reflection, we must decline inserting the Epitaph on Lord Nelson.

We are not much attached to parody. However, we may, when space shall permit, insert "*The Banks of the Suir*."

The severities of wits are generally returned with interest; and our columns are ever open to replication. With this hint we shall close with "*Robin Hood*," and obey his injunctions.

"*Peter Pathetic*," indeed, wants correction—more than we are at leisure to bestow.

"*Petrarch*" must find some other medium through which to address his Laura.

The Lines on Pope's Homer are pretty; but we wish the author would turn his genius to some less hacknied subject.

We shall be happy to hear further from W. W. on the subject of American Torpedo.

S. S. is under consideration; as also "*The Maniac*."

To foster native talent—encourage juvenile exertion; and half the opening dawn of genius, is the doctrine we have expressed in our Prospectus; and to it we shall endeavour to adhere with a true orthodox spirit. Governed by these principles, we would have given a place to the "*Elegy addressed to a young lady on the death of a favourite Cat*;" but it is neither in subject or execution suited to our plan. We hope this observation may not be misunderstood, or viewed in an ill-natured light; as we would not have thus noticed it, did we not perceive some marks of fertility that might be improved by a judicious cultivation. We are well aware of the tender plant of the "*genus irritabile vatum*" we have to deal with in addressing our correspondents, and shall ever carry in our mind the prayer of poor Bourns, whilst writhing under the unjust lash of his censor—

"*Heaven defend me from the iron criticism of Dr. Gregory.*"

The favours of "*Will o' the Wisp*" shall be attended to.

The "*Essay on Female Education*"—and "*Simon Sympathy's song*" in our next.

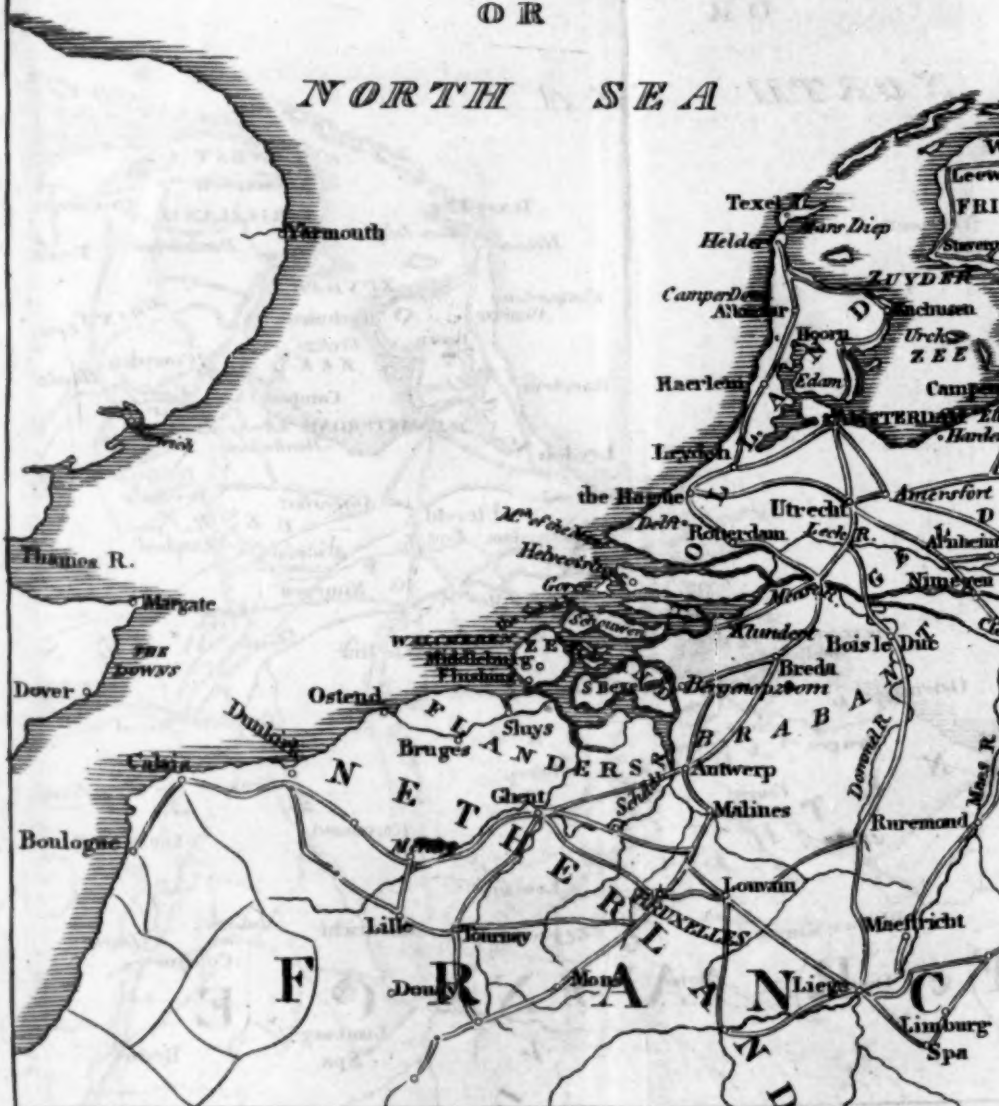
We have perused the letter of "*Indicator*" with attention; but think the subject would not suite the MUSEUM. We are sure the question to which the writer seeks an answer, would be explained upon application to Bishop Troy himself.

"*Robert Hogg*" came too late for insertion under its proper head [*Social Economy*]; we, however gave it a corner in the *Miscellanea*.

GERMAN

OR

NORTH SEA



THE UNITED PROVINCES
with part of the
NETHERLANDS

Miles
0 10 20 30 40 50

Engraved for the Dublin Monthly Museum.



I JY59



Reverse Subject —

Charles John .

CROWN PRINCE of SWEDEN .

Engraved for the Dublin Museum.